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CONTENTS

Editorial

The International Journal of Comparative Education and Development (IJCED) is the official biannual journal of the Comparative Education Society of Hong Kong (CESHK). The present issue is being published soon after the 2015 conference organized by the CESHK with the theme "Developing Scholarship in Comparative Education," which was attended by over two hundred delegates from twenty-one countries in and outside Asia.

Our journal, as well as the conference, reflects the field of comparative education and our mission, namely highlighting the importance and significance of comparative education research. We are fully aware, at the same time, that our ultimate mission is improving human conditions that lead to human flourishing and happiness. It is also here that our lives can find a meaning and noble purpose.

Therefore, as its name suggests, our official journal's raison d'être is to be an instrument of dialogue and movement to tackle the many problems humankind faces today, as varied as lack of equity, gender equality, child and maternal mortality, poor housing conditions, HIV, malaria, safe water, and environmental crisis. We clearly see the many unsolved related problems that await us, such as Lifelong Learning for All (EFA), Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) and Skills development for employability and inclusive growth (TVET). They all require our unrelenting contributions through our work.

The authors of the articles published in the present issue, Volume 17 Issue 1, cover a range of topics and they share the common aim of solving the aforementioned problems. We editors sincerely appreciate their contributions.

Our gratitude also goes to the editorial members and reviewers, who continuously support us to make our journal sustainable. Our special thanks go to Miss Chan Ka Ying whose type-setting work made this editorial project hit the shelves on time.

Jae Park

Editor-in-Chief

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China and Japan's Education and Training Cooperation with Africa: Discourse, Data and Distinctiveness[1]

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Abstract

Along with India and Germany, China and Japan run two of the largest short-term training programmes in the world, and many Africans are direct beneficiaries. There are some apparent similarities in the discourses of China and Japan's aid, with their emphasis on mutual benefit, people-to-people cooperation, and partnership. But their practices in education take different forms even though both illustrate the importance of long-term institutional commitment. Both place great reliance on aid with a Japanese or Chinese face; hence the crucial importance of experts from China and Japan in Africa.

But there are also major differences. One of these is their approach to language and culture, with Japan now rather hesitant about its own language promotion, and with China supporting almost 40 Confucius Institutes in African universities from the Cape to Cairo. The other is the massive difference between them in data accessibility about education and training.

Keywords: Human resource development; Discourses; Data; Education-in-practice;

Introduction

For this CESHK Conference concerned with similarities and differences between these two East Asian countries, it is of course intriguing to note, right at the outset, that on 15th January 2015, Japan's prime-minister, Shinzo Abe, was in Egypt meeting its president, while further South in Africa, China's foreign minister, Wang Yi, was maintaining the tradition since 1991 of Chinese foreign ministers annually making Africa their first trip abroad.[2] In the January 2015 case, the latter's visit included Kenya, Sudan, Cameroon, Equatorial Guinea and the DRC. Shinzo Abe was leaving Africa to visit Jordan, Israel and the West Bank, but one year earlier, his first visits of the year had been to Ethiopia, Mozambique and Cote d'Ivoire.[3]

Following their dual safari to Africa in early 2015, it is tempting to point up some of the other parallels and similarities in the approach to cooperation in Africa by China and Japan. In the case of China, this may be part of an apparently integrated approach to aid, trade and investment by China in Africa which is reminiscent of what Japan pursued in South East Asia, as well as arguably in China itself (King, 2007, p. 3; see also Brautigam, 2009; King & McGrath, 2004; Kitano, 2003, p. 467). 'Apparently' is used here deliberately as there is little

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[1] Some of the work on China-Africa higher education cooperation has been supported by the Hong Kong Research Grants Council (GRF Ref. No. 842912; and Ref. No. 750008). They are not of course responsible for the views expressed here. I am very grateful to Kayashima Nobuko for ongoing discussions about JICA support to overseas universities, and for invaluable help with references to relevant material, especially for Japan.

[2] Retrieved on 19th January 2015 http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/mfa_eng/zxxx_662805/t1227707.shtml

[3] Abe's visit to Egypt was seen more as a Middle-East package, and was cut short by the Japanese hostage crisis when he was in Israel. Retrieved from:
http://news.yahoo.com/japan-pm-pledges-2-5-billion-non-military-085905615.html

available evidence of deliberate integration of cooperation in education and human resource development along with trade and investment by China.

Data on Japan and China's education and training cooperation with Africa
'Evidence' is the key word, and it marks what is currently one of the sharpest distinctions between Chinese and Japanese aid, *the availability of aid data.* The websites of the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) which determines aid policy and of the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), which is its primary implementing agency, are extremely rich. In four languages, including the three principal ones of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), there is ready access to all the main thematic issue areas of its cooperation, including Education. Geographically, there is coverage of 34 programme countries in SSA, and three in North Africa.[4] For each country, there are a series of very recent news items, and then there are separate links to activities in the country, technical cooperation projects, ODA loan project data, results and evaluations. Furthermore, under activities in each programme country, there are the main thematic issues represented in that country; thus there may be five or more links to particular education projects. Altogether, the main projects in the country may also be identified precisely in a map of the country, and the latest updates are given, along with a message from the head of the JICA office. There are also detailed references to the volunteer programme when relevant (e.g., South Africa).[5]

At the headquarters level in Tokyo, the websites of JICA and MOFA provide a very wide range of relevant aid data. Again, taking just the case of Education, there is an 'overview', a list of 'JICA activities', and a 'case study'. Each of these opens to further data. Thus, 'JICA activities' has 'JICA's Operation in Education Sector' which covers, in three languages apart from Japanese, the detail on the main education operations (some 12 pages). There are then two brochures with the mapping of all the main priorities in education with illustrative projects. One of these covers *JICA basic education cooperation in Africa* (May 2013). For each of JICA's main education sub-sectors, basic, TVET and higher, there is a 'project map of JICA's cooperation'.[6] In MOFA, there is a parallel publication on Japan's Education Cooperation Policy, 2011-2015.[7]

Specifically on Africa, of course, there is coverage on the MOFA site of all five Tokyo International Conferences on African Development (TICAD) from 1993 to 2013. Each of these has a full archive of the key speeches made, as well as reports of the main sessions held, and detail on each of the bilateral meetings.[8]

The home pages of JICA and MOFA also provide access to the Annual Reports of JICA, and to Japan's annual Official Development Assistance White Papers (MOFA). There are further reports on Japan's volunteer programme and on cooperation with Japanese NGOs. There is a wide range of publications including archives, and a good deal of further material, including seminars, evaluations, policy briefs, working papers, books and reports, available from the

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4 Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/mfa_eng/zxxx_662805/t1227707.shtml
5 Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://www.jica.go.jp/southafrica/english/index.html
6 Retrieved on 19th January 2015:
http://www.jica.go.jp/english/our_work/thematic_issues/education/activity.html
7 Retrieved on 19th January 2015:
http://www.google.co.jp/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=3&ved=0CCsQFjAC&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.mofa.go.jp%2Fpolicy%2Foda%2Fmdg%2Fpdfs%2Fedu_pol_ful_en.pdf&ei=HvK7VIL5FIuf8QX364LgCw&usg=AFQjCNE5ngF3SzTR1tgOJ6BBJLWgurwB9Q&bvm=bv.83829542,d.dGc
8 Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://www.mofa.go.jp/region/page2e_000002.html

JICA Research Institute.[9]Finally, there is data connected to the 15 domestic JICA offices in Japan which provide facilities for the short-term training, for overseas seminars, and for development education in the case of the two Global Plazas (in Tokyo and Nagoya).

The contrast at the moment with China's aid data could not be more marked. There is not of course any parallel specialized agency or ministry for China's foreign aid. Rather the Department of Foreign Assistance is located within the Ministry of Commerce (MOFCOM). But on the English version of the website, the Department has only the following information, with no further links:

> *To formulate and implement plans and policies of foreign aid, to boost the reform on China's foreign aid methods, to organize negotiations on foreign aid and sign related agreements, to tackle inter-governmental aid affairs; to formulate and implement foreign aid plans; to supervise and inspect the implementation of foreign aid projects.* [10]

However, there is a great deal of material on the Chinese counterpart organization to TICAD. The Forum on China-Africa Cooperation (FOCAC) has a rich range of data on its website.[11]These cover the archives of the five FOCAC Conferences since 2000, with a full listing of the speeches, agreements and declarations. The FOCAC site also covers Sino-African relations; Entering Africa; Exchanges and Dialogues; and Academic exchanges. Under each of these titles, there are further items in drop down menus. Thus Sino-African relations cover four other items: China's African Policy; Political Exchange; Economic and Trade Cooperation; and Cultural Exchange.

What is intriguing in research terms is that in each of these items there is a long list of what are essentially speeches or briefings in China or in Africa. Thus, under Political Exchange, there is a list of no less than 50 items, each of which can be opened. But there are 16 pages of these, making a total of some 800 items in total. These stretch from 'President Teodoro Obiang Nguema Mbasogo of Equatorial Guinea Meets with Wang Yi', the Chinese Foreign Minister, on the 16th January 2015 to 'Chinese President holds talks with Kenyan president' on 2nd May 2010. Under Cultural Exchange, there is a huge variety of material, and some of it is distinctly related to education such as 'Kenya president lays foundation stone for Chinese built university tower' (28th August 2014).[12] This turns out to be a 22 story building financed by public-private partnership at the cost of US$313 million in the University of Nairobi. One of the oldest entries in this Cultural Exchange list, from the 18th October 2006, is entitled: 'China has educational exchanges with over 50 African countries'.[13] This briefing by a deputy-director in the Chinese Ministry of Education has a number of gems, including the information that 'China has also dispatched 530 professional teachers to 35 African countries to assist them in developing higher and middle school education, according to Cen'.[14]

It can be readily seen that, fascinating though these several thousands of individual items are, they constitute a considerable methodological challenge in research terms. They are predominantly reports of speeches from both African and Chinese leaders. The content of the speeches frequently reiterates the core principles of China-Africa friendship as in the case of

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[9] Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://jica-ri.jica.go.jp/

[10] Retrieved on 19th January 2015: (http://english.mofcom.gov.cn/departments/yws2/)

[11] Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://www.focac.org/eng/

[12] http://www.focac.org/eng/zfgx/rwjl/t1186276.htm

[13] http://www.focac.org/eng/zfgx/rwjl/t404110.htm

[14] http://www.focac.org/eng/zfgx/rwjl/t404110.htm

China's Foreign Minister, Wang Yi, on the 11th January 2015, reflecting on his achievements in Kenya: 'We agreed to further promote China-Kenya comprehensive cooperative partnership which is characterized by equality, mutual trust, mutual benefit and win-win outcomes'.[15]

Although many different dimensions of China's higher education cooperation are referred to in passing by these hugely diverse reports of high-level meetings, they are a world away from the operational reports about higher education and other education sub-sectors just mentioned for JICA above. They are not perceived principally as data about education or indeed other sectors, but are illustrations of the political importance of solidarity and the long-standing friendship with Africa. The use of a leader's speech or meeting as the principal data source is not confined to the FOCAC site but we shall note it also occurs elsewhere.

It might be wondered whether the Chinese Ministry of Education would provide any clearer and more coherent version of higher education cooperation than is available through these reports of speeches and meetings. Its Department of International Cooperation and Exchanges is the most obvious player here, but there are only two paragraphs on the English language site concerning 'Cooperation and Exchanges with Asian and African countries', and the information is the same as it was in 2009. There are just five projects mentioned, no less than three of them actually involving Japan, but there is no more detail on the 'cooperative project with African countries' than there was in September 2009; and there is no link to find out more.[16]

The fourth site that might offer insights into China-Africa higher education is that of the Chinese Language Council (Hanban), a body which is ultimately under the Ministry of Education, and is responsible for the Confucius Institutes. Even though there are in Africa only just 40 out of the total of 440 Confucius Institutes worldwide, there is some information about each of these on the Hanban website, and of course a great deal more detailed information is available on the websites of the individual universities in Africa where these CIs are based. It is intriguing to note on the Hanban site that there is a somewhat similar approach to the reporting of meetings and leaders' speech, as was found with FOCAC. Thus the vice-chair of the National People's Congress, Chen Zhili, comments on education cooperation and exchange between Kenya and China, and on the role of the Confucius Institute in that process.[17]

Summarising the information on China-Africa cooperation in higher education that can be found on the four sites of the Department of Foreign Assistance, FOCAC, the Department of International Cooperation and Exchanges, and Hanban, it could be said that there is very little detailed data. A good deal can be pieced together from the hundreds of reports of meetings and speeches, but the analysis of education cooperation is not their purpose. Rather, they present an aid rhetoric that continuously underlines the importance of long-standing historical links of friendship with Africa, and of the current solidarity and win-win character of China's engagement with the continent. It would actually be profitable in research terms to tease out from this mass of speeches and meetings' data the references to educational cooperation. But none of it is in the form of an evaluative report. Instead, it illustrates China's role as a friendly

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[15] http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/mfa_eng/wjdt_665385/wshd_665389/t1227707.shtml
[16] http://www.moe.edu.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/s3917/201007/91579.html
[17] Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://english.hanban.org/article/2010-09/03/content_172797.htm

partner in South-South Cooperation, or in a favourite phrase, 'the largest developing country' helping the continent with 'the largest number of developing countries'.[18]

A more coherent formal analysis of China's engagement with education and training in Africa is to be found in *China's African Policy* of January 2006.[19] But this short document has only two paragraphs on 'Cooperation in human resources development and education'. Equally, in the White Papers on *China's foreign aid* in 2011 and in 2014,[20] there are useful references to the scale of China's education cooperation, mostly in higher education. Precise numbers are given for foreign students in China for a particular period, or for teachers sent to Africa, or of teachers and agricultural technicians trained. But this is all in just some five short paragraphs under the title of 'Improving the level of education' in the 2014 White Paper.[21] Similarly, there are three paragraphs on education in the 2011 White Paper on *China's foreign aid*.[22]

Part of 'the challenge of studying China's human resource development for Africa' (King, 2013: 15) is precisely that there is so little formal material available. Indeed, one of the most valuable accounts of China's educational cooperation with Africa is a booklet, now ten years old, of some 79 pages on *China-Africa education cooperation* (Ministry of Education, 2005). It covers the different periods of China's education cooperation with Africa, and provides valuable detail (in Chinese only) on cooperation with Africa on tertiary education and research; student exchanges from Africa to China, and China to Africa; dispatch of teachers to Africa, including Chinese language teachers; professional seminars in China for Africa; vocational education; inter-school cooperation; and African studies in China. By far the longest section is that on higher education followed by student exchanges – which is also intimately connected to higher education.[23]

Japan and China's general and higher education projects in Africa

The Japanese websites mentioned above carry considerable detail on the most well-known educational projects in Africa, such as Strengthening Maths and Science Education (SMASE) and School for All, including their recent evaluations, and the education commitments of TICAD. There has been some support to TVET also, but particularly to school building. A substantial number of the 11,500 schools built by JICA over the decades were in Africa, and TICAD IV alone pledged a further 500 in its2008 Yokohama Action Plan (JICA, 2014a, p. 78). By contrast, China has built some 150 friendship schools in Africa, following the FOCAC pledges of 2006[24] and 2009[25] and sent teachers to Africa during different periods of its cooperation, but there are no Chinese parallels in Africa to the large-scale Japanese projects for improving school quality and school management in Africa. Rather, it could be argued that unlike Japan whose projects cover basic education, technical and vocational education and training, and higher education, China's education support is essentially at the tertiary level, though its 2014 white paper on foreign aid does refer to substantial numbers

[18] Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://www.china.org.cn/english/features/focac/183721.htm
[19] Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://www.china.org.cn/english/features/focac/183721.htm
[20] Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/china/2014-07/10/c_133474011.htm
[21] Retrieved on January 19th 2015: http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/china/2014-07/10/c_133474011_2.htm
[22] Retrieved on 19th January 2015: http://news.xinhuanet.com/english2010/china/2011-04/21/c_13839683_12.htm
[23] I am grateful to Zhang Zhongwen for translating parts of this booklet.
[24] See FOCAC 2006, retrieved on 26th January 2015: http://www.focac.org/eng/ltda/dscbzjhy/DOC32009/t280369.htm
[25] See FOCAC 2009, retrieved on 26th January 2015: http://www.focac.org/eng/ltda/dsjbzjhy/hywj/t626387.htm Interestingly the text reads: 'The Chinese Government offered to: ─ Help African countries to build 50 China-Africa friendship schools in the next three years.'

being trained in vocational skills in Omdurman, and many thousands being trained in technical and agricultural education in Ethiopia (China, 2014). China also refers to 10,000 Chinese teachers being sent to developing countries, and to the training of no less than 10,000 principals and teachers in China (China, 2014). Only some of these relate to Africa, of course, and as we shall see below, they are part of China's cross-sectoral large-scale, short-term human resource training rather than a substantive project in education. Further to these, China also pledged US$2 million annually to UNESCO to support education development programmes in Africa, and especially higher education (FOCAC, 2012).

At the higher education level specifically, however, there have been institutional development projects of some scale, supported by Japan and China respectively. Thus Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) in Kenya has been associated with significant Japanese support since its foundation in 1981. For China, what is claimed to be 'the largest foreign aid education project by the Chinese Government' is the Ethio-China Polytechnic College (ECPC), established in 2005 and renamed the Federal Vocational Education Training Institute in 2011 (Niu, 2011, p.10).

Characteristic of much of China's formal higher education cooperation with Africa are partnerships between a Chinese university and an African counterpart. This is the mechanism that was used in the first set of 25 Chinese higher education projects in the 1990s, and it was the same modality for the ECPC with its powerful link to Tianjin University of Technology and Education, both for faculty and staff development. The 20+20 China-Africa University Cooperative Project, which connects 20 Chinese universities with 20 universities in Africa, employs the same approach. Indeed, so does the Confucius Institute project worldwide; thus all the 40 universities with a Confucius Institute in Africa have a Chinese partner university responsible for sending the co-director and Chinese teachers, as well as supplying the base for the overseas language training of Africans from their partner institution.

Partnership is also a key term for Japan's higher education collaboration with Africa, but in at least one of the flagship higher education projects in Africa – the Egypt-Japan University of Science and Technology (E-JUST), there is not just a single partner. Rather there are four lead universities: Waseda, Kyoto, Kyushu and Tokyo Tech, amongst a total of 12 supporting universities in a consortium. A similar arrangement operates for the Pan-African University (PAU) project for which JICA has taken responsibility for one of its key academic strands; there is a consortium of Japanese universities, including Kyoto and Okayama, in the supporting committee. There is of course in Asia an example of this same clustering; the JICA supported South East Asia Engineering Education Development Network (SEED-Net) is essentially a networking arrangement amongst some 40 Japanese and South East Asian institutions, but it is not an amalgam of bilateral links.[26]

People-to-people dimensions of higher education support

Apart from the specific examples of institutional support mentioned above, both China and Japan pay a great deal attention to what they both term 'people-to-people' dimensions of their cooperation. Indeed, the President of JICA in the *JICA 2014. Annual Report* goes so far as to claim that 'people-to-people interaction is the essence of Japan's international cooperation' (JICA, 2014, p.9). It is important to emphasise that, by this term, President Tanaka Akihiko is referring to Japanese experts, Japanese volunteers, and also overseas participants in training programmes in Japan. There are other categories of people-to-people cooperation but the

[26] I am grateful to Kayashima Nobuko for discussion of these arrangements.

cumulative figures for these three categories alone over the 60 years of Japan's foreign aid are very substantial: Experts: 136,500; Volunteers: 46,000; Training participants: 310,000 (JICA, 2014).

The data are also available on the number of different kinds of technical cooperation personnel going in both directions, from Japan to Africa and separately from Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) to Japan. The numbers for example for 2012 are as follows:

> Trainees from SSA: 7866; Experts to SSA: 2662; Study mission personnel[27] to SSA: 1872; Volunteers to SSA: 1232

The cumulative totals in each of these same categories for the year from 1954 to 2012 are as follows:

> Trainees from SSA: 106,524; experts to SSA: 13,872; Study mission personnel to SSA: 34,474; Volunteers to SSA: 12,311.

The *JICA 2014. Annual Report* actually also has numbers for these same categories at the country level for each of the 34 countries where it has offices in Sub-Saharan Africa.

China equally employs the discourse of 'people-to-people exchange' in its policy papers. Thus in *China's African policy* (2006) the term is used to refer to exchanges with people's organisations in China and Africa, and to the movement of volunteers to Africa. But China refers very frequently to some of the same categories as the JICA President, and particularly to the numbers of trainees and scholarship holders. We shall review some of these now. It should be noted that though these are at the tertiary level, they are wider than the formal education sector, and could be included in human resource development more generally.

Short-term professional training in China and Japan

Thus one of the iconic figures to come out of FOCAC V in 2012 was the pledge to train 30,000 'African professionals in various sectors' (FOCAC V, 2012, para. 5.2.2) between 2013 and 2015. This figure comes to roughly 10,000 per year; so is very close to the JICA figure for 2012 mentioned above (7866). Indeed, as JICA includes North Africa within its Middle East and Europe region, its figure for the whole of Africa would not be much less than that for China.

Many of these African professionals and other trainees are not on what has been called 'project-related training', with a close link to an aided development project. Rather, they are individually recruited via their usual ministry or higher education institute on to one of a substantial number of training courses offered in Japan and China. Unlike Japan whose overseas trainees are housed in the 15 domestic JICA offices for their courses, China places its 10,000 trainees in a wide range of university resource centres across China. Within the field of education, for example, some are known for their expertise on distance learning, some for higher education, agricultural or vocational education etc. Japan has developed a similar degree of specialization within its domestic JICA offices.

It should be noted that there are just four countries that allocate major resources to this kind of short-term training (between 3 weeks and 3 months). The other two countries are Germany

[27] Study missions are organized before projects are agreed.

and India. All four of them continue to believe that there are major benefits to the host country from this form of educational diplomacy. Teasing out what it is more precisely that host countries think are the benefits of such training may be important. It is worth noting that these assumed benefits may also have changed with time. Thus, training programmes arranged around the assumption of developmental benefits to the sending countries alone may have altered in recent years to stress the economic and political benefit to the host countries of these 'ambassadors' returning home (King, 2013, p.191, footnote 24).

Long-term training in China and Japan

China has also continued to increase the numbers of its long-term scholarship offers to Africa. These are now running at a figure of 18,000 for the triennium 2013-2015; in other words, 6,000 new scholarships are offered in each of these years. There is not an agreed total for African students in China for 2014, but in 2011, the number of African students in the country was said to be 20,744, of which the majority (14,000) were self-sponsored.

Interestingly, Japan's numbers of African long-term students are very much lower than these figures. As of May 2013, the total number of African students in Japan was just 1,155, out of a total number of 135,519 long-term international students (JASSO[28]). No less than 123,000 of this total were self-sponsored. It will be interesting to consider why the rationales for maintaining very high numbers of short-term overseas trainees is so different when it comes to long-term training. It is also worth noting that China provides almost 50% of the total international students in China with a total of 81,884 in 2013.

Volunteering for Africa by Japan and China

Here the engagement by the two nations in voluntary service overseas is quite the other way round. Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) started going abroad as early as 1965, and some 38,980 had been sent to 88 countries by 2013. In addition, over 5,000 Senior Volunteers (between the ages of 40 and 69) had undertaken service in some 70 countries. Along with some other volunteer categories, the total comes to the 46,000 mentioned by the JICA President (JICA, 2014a, pp.108-109). Sub-Saharan Africa has been the destination for the majority of the JOCVs as of 2013 (12,311). But again the number would be larger if some volunteers going to North Africa, and a proportion of the Senior Volunteers were added.

China has long had a voluntary tradition operating in-country, but it only began its overseas volunteering in 2002, with its first volunteers going to Laos. By the end of 2009, it had dispatched 405 volunteers to over 19 countries, including Ethiopia and Liberia (China, 2011). The FOCAC Summit of November 2006 pledged to send 300 'Young Volunteers Serving Africa' by 2009. So presumably a significant proportion of the 405 went to Africa. Certainly, volunteering has continued, and a further 74 have been sent since 2009.[29]

But the category of volunteer that has grown dramatically since the end of 2004 when the first Confucius Institute was founded in Seoul is Chinese language volunteers. By the end of 2009, the number of these volunteers had reached 7,590 (China, 2011, p.10); and it will have increased significantly since then, as the pace of Confucius Institute (CI) development has quickened, along with the very rapid growth of Confucius Classrooms (CC) (which are based in schools). Africa only has 40 of the world's 440 Confucius Institutes; so only a relatively

[28] For the regional breakdowns of international students in Japan, see the Japan Student Services Organisation (JASSO), data retrieved on 27th January 2015 at: http://www.jasso.go.jp/statistics/intl_student/data13_e.html
[29] I am grateful to Huang Lizhi of Peking University for this information (13th January 2015).

small proportion of these language volunteers can be added to the more general volunteers already mentioned.

Experts for Africa and on Africa from Japan and China

The JICA President has already referred to the very large number of Japanese experts (136,500) who have been dispatched round the world since Japanese aid started up till 2013. While the great majority of these have served in Asia, no less than 13,872 have worked as long and short-term experts in Sub-Saharan Africa, and again the number will be larger with a proportion of the Middle-East/North African number being added to this. An even larger number of Japanese have been involved in 'study missions', carrying out feasibility studies for future projects. More than 244,000 have been dispatched for this purpose, and over 34,000 have served in Sub-Saharan Africa.

By contrast, China does not have a particular category of workers sent overseas whose numbers are carefully aggregated in the manner of Japan. But it did take a view about the role of its 'experts' in Africa and in Asia that was far in advance of its time. Just over 50 years ago in January 1964, Premier Zhou Enlai enunciated the eight principles for China's aid to developing countries. The two principles which refer to expertise and technology transfer continue to be as relevant today as they were then:

> 7. In providing any technical assistance, the Chinese Government will see to it that the personnel of the recipient country fully master such technique.
> 8. The experts dispatched by China to help in construction in the recipient countries will have the same standard of living as the experts of the recipient country. The Chinese experts are not allowed to make any special demands or enjoy any special amenities (China, 2000).

It is intriguing to reflect on the fact that although China does not publish regular numbers of its experts and technicians associated with its projects, it is China rather than Japan which is regularly criticized in the Western media for bringing 'hordes' of Chinese workers, or what Brautigam has called the 'Orient Express'.[30]

Another area of expertise where both China and Japan were in step with each other was in the early recognition that African studies centres and institutes needed to be founded in China and Japan if their countries were to understand better the continent they were working with. As early as 1961, on the instruction of Chairman Mao, the Institute of West Asian and African Studies was established in Beijing. The Japan Association for African Studies was founded just three years later in April 1964 (King, 2006).

Language and Culture: Confucius Institute and the Japan Foundation

The dissemination of national language, arts and culture is widespread, and is by no means restricted to the few well known institutions such as the British Council and the Goethe-Institute. In Japan's case, the Japan Foundation has 22 centres in different countries. Many of these are outside the OECD. Thus, there are Foundation offices in Brazil, Hungary, Russia, China, India Indonesia, Mexico, Malaysia, Thailand, Philippines, Vietnam and South Korea. Only one is to be found in Africa, in Cairo. None in Sub-Saharan Africa. The more research-oriented Japan Society for the Promotion of Science has ten overseas offices, two of them in Africa (in Nairobi and Cairo).

[30] The largest number of Chinese experts on any single project in Africa so far have been the approximately 50,000 Chinese who worked on the construction of the TanZam Railway from 1970.

China stands in sharp contrast to this, with three cultural centres in Africa (in Benin, Egypt and Mauritius). But in addition China has no less than 40 Confucius Institutes (CIs) both in Sub-Saharan and North Africa. These cover 26 countries, including Benin and Mauritius. They provide access to Chinese language, culture and the arts, and also offer opportunities for both long and short-term scholarships to China. Like other countries which promote their language and culture, this is not straightforwardly 'aid', as a very substantial number of the Confucius Institutes are supported by China in North America, Europe and in DAC countries, as well as in Russia. But it does dramatically differ from Japan's promotion of its language and culture in Africa, in offering these opportunities in institutes which are, all but one, located within African universities.[31]

Commonalities in modalities and approaches

Having looked briefly at some of the quantitative dimensions of Japan and China's people-to-people support to Africa in particular, it may be useful to note some of the principles of international cooperation which they appear to share. It will then be important to examine in a little more detail the human resource dimensions of these principles.

Not surprisingly, Japan emphasizes in its own reflection on 60 years of ODA the features that are held to be 'distinguishing characteristics' of its cooperation (Tanaka in JICA, 2014a, p.8). Predictably these turn out to be Japan's experience as an aid recipient, as well as its experience of rapid development more generally. They also cover the crucially important 'spirit of self-help' which is linked to the essential ownership of development. In addition, there is the strong emphasis on economic growth as the road to poverty reduction and on infrastructure, both hard and soft varieties. JICA's current President would emphasise that aid has been 'useful in building long-term mutually beneficial relationships between Japan and partner countries' (JICA, 2014a, p.6). The mutual benefit dimension is underlined in the statement that it is "international cooperation that invigorates Japan by invigorating the world" (JICA, 2014a, p.10).The OECD DAC's *Japan: Peer review* (2010) would add 'non-interference in partners' political affairs' to the list (OECD, 2010, p. 28). But in essence, the OECD perceive that 'These pillars – building capacity to support self-help efforts, using Japanese technology and expertise and infrastructure for growth - are evident throughout the Japanese system and their roots can be traced back to Japan's own development experience' (JICA, 2014a, p.30).

China utilizes some very similar language to Japan's and especially when it comes to the emphasis on helping recipient countries 'to strengthen their self-development capacity' (China, 2011, preface). Like Japan, there is a strong belief that a country's own efforts are critical, and that infrastructure is vital as a basis for economic development. Equally, there is the same language about non-interference in the governance of the recipient countries, as well as on the mutual benefit and common development to be expected in cooperation. Both countries consider the development of the capacity of the recipient countries to be absolutely crucial.

Deeper levels of analysis on human resource development

We shall return to note some of the parallels between these two nations' cooperation strategies towards the end of this paper, but for the moment, it may be useful to tease out what

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[31] See further King (2015 forthcoming) Confucius Institutes in Africa: No controversies, No Case Studies?

these claims about the significance of capacity building and human resource development might translate into in practice. The literature at the moment is much more about how partnership, win-win cooperation and mutual benefit are critical to the relationship. The literature is highly quantitative in the sense that we know a good deal about the numbers of experts, volunteers, trainees, and students moving between China & Japan and Africa and vice versa. But we know a good deal less about the nature of their interaction as trainees, students, experts and volunteers with their host institutions. Some of these dimensions will be explored now, and their implications for further research will be elaborated. We shall only cover a small number of the more visible examples of such educational collaboration from both sides.

Case study insights into Confucius Institutes and Confucius Classrooms in Africa

This is by far the most visible of China's higher education partnerships in Africa, and indeed worldwide. The Confucius Institutes (CIs) have become the focus of controversy in a rather small number of universities in North America, Europe and Australia (King, 2015). But a good deal of the debate is about claims of interference with academic freedom, in general, and very little to do with the character of the learning in particular CIs. Even though there are a larger number of CCs (c 750) worldwide, there is surprisingly a dearth of critical case study analysis of the CCs; indeed there is not even a separate Wikipedia entry for them.

It is argued (King, 2015) that one of the lenses that is lacking on both the CIs and CCs is case study material about the nature of the CC/CI learning environment, and of the chemistry of the collaboration between the Chinese partner university or school and its overseas counterpart. As we mentioned earlier in this paper, there is plenty of material on how many thousands of CI learners there are, and there is no shortage of speeches linked to the opening of CIs in different universities. But we lack anything approaching ethnographic approaches to the CIs and CCs in Africa.[32]

Case studies of JICA's education projects in Africa

The contrast to CIs for Japan would be one of several very visible education projects, such as Strengthening Mathematics and Science Education (SMASE), School for All, or Lesson Study. Here the parallel would be the tendency in the general discussion about Japan's educational aid to talk about the importance of 'capacity development' or of Japanese 'experience' and history of educational development, but not to discuss the particularity of what could be learned from Japan in science and maths education. Or there might be just a one-liner such as this which can be found on a flyer disseminated by Zambia's Ministry of Education and JICA:

> *Lesson study is a problem solving process of professional development for teachers that has been practiced in Japan from as far back as the 19th century and is still being implemented by teachers in Japanese schools.*

However, to take the example of Lesson Study, there is, in fact, a wide range of case study material available in English from Japan (see Isoda et al.,2004), and even some qualitative case material from Zambia (Baba &Nakai,2011).[33]There is also a whole book-length study of *The history of Japan's educational development: What implications can be drawn for*

[32] See Hubbert (2014) for an insight into what is being missed, - retrieved on 28th January 2015 from: http://www.aaanet.org/sections/seaa/2014/05/the-anthropology-of-confucius-institutes/

[33] I am grateful to Okitsu Taeko for references to some of the detailed analyses of several of these educational initiatives.

developing countries today? (JICA, 2004).Such a volume analyzing the history of the donor's education system for its possible relevance to its aid programme is almost unparalleled in the literature. But this dedicates a complete chapter to Lesson Study in the context of what it could mean in a developing country context:

> *However, when carrying out lesson study, it is necessary to pay attention to the need on the one hand, while always continuing to aim at gradual daily lesson improvements, to have a long-term perspective and return to the core of education, and on the other hand, because in lesson study the process is stressed more than the result, to think, when applying lesson study to developing countries, in terms of development that is matched to the real situation and to give sufficient consideration to the cultural and social background of each country (JICA, 2004, p. 225).*

Meanwhile with SMASE, there is fortunately a very detailed analysis of the project in Kenya. This also acts as an insight into what 'capacity development' means in practice (See JICA, 2007). This last is a good example of the particular challenges of going to scale with what is originally an externally supported project. This was not at all a formal evaluation, but a detailed case study which illuminates in practice many of the issues which are discussed in the rhetoric of aid, such as ownership, technology transfer etc.

These case studies also reveal that there are frequently very special individuals who are committed to these JICA innovations over a long period of time. These appear to have been present, in for instance the SMASE case, on both the Kenyan and the Japanese side. This would suggest that it is not just a question of any old people-to-people engagement but the long-term dedication of specific individuals that can make a difference.

People-to-people case material on training in practice

With both Japan and China, two of the principal modalities for educational cooperation are the large-scale, short-term training programmes taking thousands of professionals to Asia, and there are also the scholarship programmes where we have noted China provides a much larger number for Africa than Japan. With both these aid modalities, there has been a critical lack of insight into their implementation in practice. Some work has been done on African students in China (see King, 2013, ch. 3), but nothing approaching the scale that would provide insight at the country level in Africa. With short-term training, there are literally hundreds of courses being offered in both Japan and China, but beyond the standard formal evaluations, there is little academic literature on their character and influence.[34] Careful tracer and follow-up studies would be needed, apart from participation in the training processes themselves. The same is true for the volunteer schemes for both countries as they affect Africa. Here there has been some research on the JOCV (Okabe, 2014), but none so far on the smaller scale Chinese volunteer schemes.

With other aspects of higher education cooperation, such as links, networks and partnerships between China and Africa, and Japan and Africa, the situation is similarly affected by a shortage of insight about influence and impact. There is some research underway on some aspects of these linkages,[35] but there has not been the kind of detailed analysis available for the British Council, for example (Stephens, 2009). A case study has been done on institutional

[34] Yuan's 2011 doctoral dissertation provides some insight into such courses in China.

[35] See China-Africa university partnerships in education and training: Students, trainees, teachers and researchers, Hong Kong Research Grants Council project with Li Jun, Kenneth and Pravina King. GRF Ref. No. 842912.

development through cross-border higher education, involving Malaysia and Japan, but this seems to be a rather isolated example (Yoshida et al., 2013).

We continue to have a situation in higher education, therefore, where rhetoric and aspirational discourse abound about cooperation with Africa from both Japan and China, but where we lack qualitative insights about the character and chemistry of these interactions. We are left accordingly with this kind of statement from *China's African Policy*, but we cannot yet put much flesh on the bones

> *Learning from each other and seeking common development. China and Africa will learn from and draw upon each other's experience in governance and development, strengthen exchange and cooperation in education, science, culture and health. Supporting African countries' efforts to enhance capacity building, China will work together with Africa in the exploration of the road of sustainable development (China, 2006, p.3).*

Reflections on China-Africa and Japan-Africa cooperation in education – current limitations of comparison

Having reviewed the quantitative dimensions of the engagement with Africa by China and Japan in education and training, we have tried to identify also some of the more qualitative case study literature that is available. It would be necessary to depend on some of this detail if there was going to be any chance of moving beyond the rhetoric of mutual benefit, win-win cooperation and common development, just alluded to. In many areas of this educational aid, such ethnographic work is simply not yet available. But it is already clear from the limited insights of this paper, that such detailed analysis of what may be called educational-cooperation-in-practice will need to pay attention to several key elements in any comparison.

First, it will need to be aware of the overall periodization of aid in general, as well as of the changes within the sector such as education, or sub-sector such as basic education, technical vocational education and training, and higher education. Thus, although, at one level, the language of aid may seem to remain unchanging from the 1960s till the present, as illustrated by the use of terms such as 'mutual benefit', 'no conditions', or 'self-reliance' by both China and Japan over five decades, the realities behind the rhetoric have changed a good deal over this period. Japan's aid practice was affected by joining DAC as early as 1960, and China's by its period of 'opening up'.

Second, within the education and training sector, the international discourse about education priorities, associated with Jomtien 1990, Dakar 2000, and the Millennium Summit of 2000, did not necessarily impact immediately or very directly on the aid practices of China or Japan in the sphere of education. There was very little influence of this discourse on China. But Japan did introduce its Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN) in 2002, 12 years after Jomtien, and started its science &maths and School for All projects in Africa from 1998 and 2004 respectively (MOFA, 2002; 2013). Arguably, however, both countries continued to support training initiatives in higher education long after the language of 'education for all' had encouraged an expanded vision of basic education. Indeed, we have shown that they have both maintained their emphasis on bringing tens of thousands of professionals for short-term training in China and Japan, 25 years after Jomtien. These are essentially tertiary level initiatives.

Even if China has paid much less attention to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in either their domestic or their overseas education planning than Japan,[36] in fact both nations have continued to share an emphasis on the importance of infrastructural investment for economic growth rather than on the predominantly social sector MDGs.

Thirdly, the most visible projects of Japan and China, such as SMASE, School for All, Lesson Study, or the Egypt-Japan University of Science and Technology (E-JUST), on the Japanese side, and Confucius Institutes and Classrooms, on China's, are very clearly linked in the public eye with China and Japan. They are not part of some sector-wide support with other donors, but are seen as essentially bilateral education projects.[37] In this sense, they may present what the Japanese call 'aid with a Japanese face'.[38] Several of these Japanese projects, notably Lesson Study, and Maths& Science Education, represent the older style of bilateralism, being examples of Japan's comparative advantage in education within Japan, and hence they became the priority for overseas cooperation. China, we have already said, has no parallel to these large-scale school-based curriculum and management projects. Nor does it draw as explicitly as Japan upon its own educational history.

A fourth area of convergence is that both countries are increasingly looking for links between education and their own private sectors, including within Africa. Thus the African Business Education (ABE) Initiative for the Youth, a TICAD V scheme bringing 1000 people to Japan from 2014 to 2017, is based on 'development priorities in Africa and interest of Japanese private sector'; it will aim to provide the ABE scholars with masters' degrees in Japanese universities, along with internships in Japanese companies (JICA, 2014b). The links with Japanese companies will prove easier to arrange in Japan than in Africa, since compared with China, Japanese companies have been hesitant to move in large numbers to the continent.

China's CIs have become differentiated with several taking the title of Business CI or Agricultural CI, including in Kenya. Equally, key higher education institutions supported by China such as the Federal Vocational and Technical Education and Training Institute have encouraged close links with Chinese and other firms in the area. So also do the Demonstration Centres of Agricultural Technology established by China following the FOCAC Summit of 2006 (FOCAC, 2006).

Dramatic differences in access to data and specialists on education in Africa remain

Even if it continues to be possible to point up similarities in the overall aid discourse of Japan and China, and to acknowledge their continued support to large amounts of short-term overseas training, as well as to the development of higher education institutions in Africa, our earlier comments about the huge differences in accessibility to data about education and training in Africa remain. It is very easy rapidly to see where Japan is spending its ODA in basic, TVET and higher education in Africa. There are regular, accessible publications from JICA for all the main projects in education in Africa, and there are parallel policy statements about education from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in its annual ODA white papers.

Tracing China's support to education and HRD initiatives in Africa is more of a detective activity. Specific paragraphs and pledges can be found, as we have shown, in *China's African*

[36] See King 2014 for an account of China's limited engagement with education post-2015.
[37] I am grateful to Ogukawa Yukiko of JICA for pointing out that after the completion of the JICA-supported phase, SMASE has been supported nationwide by the common pot of donor funding.
[38] *Nihonnokaogamieru* – aid with a Japanese face.

policy and in its two white papers on *China's foreign aid.*[39] But the two key ministries of Education and Commerce have little accessible information, at least in English, on the specifics of overseas educational aid.

At the personnel level the comparison is equally stark; there are only a handful of Chinese academics who have a detailed knowledge of what China has been doing across the continent, whether in primary school construction, TVET development, overseas training or Confucius Institutes. Japan by contrast has a considerable number of academics who have been specializing in particular countries and sub-sectors in Africa for years; there are many others linked to JICA, as education specialists or as long and short-term experts who are well known for their professional knowledge about science &maths, lesson study, TVET, NGOs, and higher education.[40]

Despite these dramatic differences, there is certainly scope for exchange of experience in Africa on education, just as there has been in the field of aid to agriculture by the two countries.[41] For the moment, this would be particularly in the field of higher education. Here China has built up expertise in language and culture, after ten years of support to Confucius Institutes in Africa. But there have also been a whole series of China-Africa university partnerships, in research, science & technology, business, and between think tanks over the past six years.

Equally, both countries have supported tens of thousands of Africans on short-term training courses in China and Japan. There has been very little detailed analysis of their influence or impact broken down for the many different development sectors that are covered by these courses. Japan has however carried out a formal evaluation of its large 'training and dialogue programmes', and has reached the conclusion that they do succeed in meeting their three objectives: Human resources development; Diplomatic resources; and Domestic regional development. The impact on these objectives is strongly presented:

> *These include fostering strong and positive relationships between Japan and recipient countries as well as having a dramatic impact on the communities within Japan involved in implementing the training courses (MOFA, 2011, p.13).*

It would be fascinating to know a great deal more about this enormous training exercise than can be offered in the pages of this evaluation exercise. Of particular interest would be to understand better the training directly related to formal education in its different subsectors, and how the historical experience of Japan is being translated through these courses.

There would be considerable interest also in knowing more about whether there are parallel conclusions being reached by China for their own very large short-term training programmes.

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[39] A search on Google on 'China's support to Education in Africa' brings up UNESCO, NORRAG and King's book on China's aid, in that order, while 'Japan's support to Education in Africa' brings up JICA Basic Education, JICA ABE Initiative, and MOFA TICAD V, in that order.

[40] For analysis of the role of specialist knowledge by JICA on education, see King &McGrath(2004).

[41] I am indebted to Okugawa, Yukiko of JICA for this information about cooperation in July 2014: 'The comparative research aims to undertake case studies on China's and Japan's agricultural cooperation in Tanzania and Ethiopia in order to understand what and how China and Japan provide development assistance in agriculture development. The case studies aim to identify the areas where both countries can work together and also to identify the strengths and weaknesses of both countries to develop the partnership.'

We are fairly sure that such a detailed analysis has not yet taken place in China. Nor has there been any recent in-depth review by Chinese scholars of the country's large-scale long-term scholarship programme.

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Hopefully, enough has been said to suggest that despite the current dramatic data differences between many aspects of China and Japan's engagement with Africa, there are several specific areas of further research noted above which would enrich our understanding of these two countries' distinctive contributions to education and training in Africa.

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Students' perception of Lecturers' reaction to incivility: A case study of a College of Education in North- Central Nigeria

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Abstract
Classroom incivility appears to be a global phenomenon. It has been reported that it poses a great challenge to instructors at all levels of learning. These challenges range from its perceived negative effects on the classroom atmosphere to the choice of strategies to employ by instructors to curb, reduce or cope with it. This study through survey explored students' perception of the strategies lecturers adopted in addressing classroom incivility. It also focused on the effectiveness of those strategies. Based on the findings, it was recommended that lecturers should utilize all the strategies at different times and in different situations, so that they can judge which was one(s) suit(s) their circumstance.

Keywords: Civility, Incivility, Lecturers, Students, Classroom, Strategies

Introduction

Incivility appears to be a global phenomenon. Incivility which is the antithesis of civility has been broad defined as any disrespectful, rude or indecorous behaviour or action which compromises the standards of reciprocal reverence (Feldman, 2001). It has been widely reported across the world, Africa (Abati, 2008; Ibrahim, 2013; Ogungbamila, 2013; Nigerianewdawn, 2013), Asia (Guliz, 2007; Li, 2013; Phillips & Smith, 2004; Stapleton, 2013), North America (Clark, 2012; Leslie & Jenkins, 2013; Swinney, Elder & Seaton, 2010), Western Europe (Buonfin & Mulgan, 2009; Davetian, 2009; Phillips & Smith, 2004). As higher institutions are microcosms of their environment (Clark & Springer, 2007; Connelly, 2009; Silverman, 2008), it is therefore little wonder that incivility has been reported as a problem of higher education (Black, Wygonk & Frey, 2011; Boice, 1996; Schroeder & Robertson, 2013). Although there has been a number of researches in this area but the vast majority has been largely in the Western world. Studies in the African context and Nigeria in particular are still very scarce. Most of the research on incivility has tended to identify uncivil behaviour and how to address them from a broad perspective (Alberts, Hazen, & Theobold, 2010; Boice, 1996, Knepp, 2012). Additionally, Boysen (2012) asserts that most of the studies which focus on managing classroom incivility are largely anecdotal instead of empirical. There is also hardly any research that has focused on pre-service teachers similar to this one. In addition to this, it has been reported that coping with or addressing incivility is a major challenge to both faculty and students, especially as faculty training does not seem to include classroom management (Boice, 1996). Therefore, an exploration of how lecturers addressed incivility was undertaken in this study by addressing the following research questions:

1. What strategies do lecturers adopt in addressing classroom incivility?
2. How effective are the strategies adopted by lecturers in addressing incivility?

Literature Review

Academic incivility which is more relevant to the context of this study has been perceived as any behaviour or action that is at variance with the wellbeing of the learning environment, distracts both instructors and students, discourages instructor from teaching and students from learning and derails instructor's set goals (Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility, 2000).

Feldmann (2001) classified classroom uncivil behaviours into three: annoyances, classroom terrorism/intimidation and threats of violence. According to Feldman (2001) annoyances are the most commonly found forms of incivility, examples of which are sleeping, daydreaming, wearing inappropriate clothing, reading newspaper, packing up early before class is over, use of cell phone to talk or text, coming to class late/leaving early, and students' conversation. Classroom terrorism/intimidation is associated with the domination of the class or instructor's time with behaviours like raising unrelated topics or sidetracking or exhibiting intolerance toward fellow students' opinions, threatening to complain about a faculty to administrators or bitterly daubing instructors through anonymous teaching evaluations. The third class, threats of violence against instructors or students, is the most severe form of incivility. Examples of this are physical assault and homicide of faculty.

Lecturers reaction to incivility may affect the display of civility by students and probably how students perceive these reactions as it has been suggested that when incivility is ignored the students have the impression that they can act with impunity or that it is accepted (Boysen, 2012; Feldman, 2001; Frey, 2009; Knepp, 2012). There are a number of studies that have partly or completely focused on ways of addressing incivility. Some of these studies are those undertaken by Alberts, Hazen and Theobold (2010), Alkandiri (2011), Ausbrooks, Jones and Tijerina (2011), Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) and Ndazhaga (2014). These studies found various ways of addressing incivility, among which are reminding students to behave well, talking to the person/ group involved privately or publicly, filing an official complaint, rebuking or imposing penalties, providing information about acceptable behaviour, joking about incivility, threat to and deducting marks, requesting a senior colleague to talk to the person/group involved.

Out of eight strategies explored in the study by Alberts, Hazen, & Theobold (2010), the three strategies mostly used were friendly verbal reminders (86.2%), talking to a student privately (74.5%) and joking about incivility (43.3%). The Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) shows that among the nine strategies, the three mostly commonly used were addressed the students involved or the entire class during class time (79.9%), spoke with the students involved outside of class time (77.4) and ignored the problem or decided not to take action (54.4%). The details of the two studies are presented on Table 1.

Table 1 *Responding to classroom incivility*

S/No	**Do your lecturers do this in response to the above classroom behaviours**	Indiana (2000)		Alberts et. al. (2010)	
		Yes %	No %	Used	Never
1.	Ignored the problem or decided not to take action	54.4	43.6	NA	NA
2.	Addressed the students involved or entire class during class time	79.9	23.1	NA	NA
3.	Spoke with the students involved outside of class time/Talking to a student privately	77.4	22.6	42.3	52.4
4.	Changed course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline	27.7	72.3	23.0	75.9
5.	Made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students	8.9	91.1	11.7	87.5
6.	Made class more fun or entertaining/Joking about incivility	44.8	55.2	12.5	87.3
7.	Sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or college	65.8	34.2	8.0	91.5

	resources/requesting a senior colleague to speak				
8.	Reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police/ filing an official complaint	17.6	82.4	10.6	88.9
9.	Others	52.6	47.4	NA	NA
10.	Friendly verbal reminder	NA	NA	86.2	12.5
11.	Suspension from class	NA	NA	23.0	75.9
12.	Threatening to deduct marks	NA	NA	11.7	87.5

*NA: Indicates that the item was not part of the study

Although a number of researchers have focused on ways of addressing incivility but not many have explored the effectiveness of these strategies with the probable exception of Alberts, Hazen and Theobold (2010) and Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000). Out of the eight strategies which were the focus of the study by Alberts, Hazen, & Theobold (2010), the three most effective were talking to a student privately (69.3%), suspension from class (53.8%) and friendly verbal reminders (53.6%). For the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000), the focus was nine strategies, out of which the three most effective were spoke with the students involved outside of class time (52.1%), other responses (51.0) and addressed the students involved or the entire class during class time (38.0%). The details of both studies are contained in Table 2.

Table 2 *Effectiveness of responses to classroom Incivility*

S/No	**How effective are these in reducing classroom problems?**	Indiana (2000)				Alberts et. Al. (2010)		
		Very %	Some what %	Not very %	Not at all %	Not %	Some what %	V. effective
1.	Ignored the problem or decided not to take action	10.4	36.7	35.3	17.6	NA	NA	NA
2.	Addressed the students involved or entire class during class time	38.03	51.1	8.0	2.9	2.1	28.6	69.3
3.	Spoke with the students involved outside of class time/Talking to a student privately	52.1	38.6	6.6	2.7	2.1	28.6	69.3
4.	Changed course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline	26.2	45.1	17.7	11.0	15.2	49.3	35.5
5.	Made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students	19.1	32.4	22.1	26.5	NA	NA	NA
6.	Made class more fun or entertaining/Joking about incivility	24.7	59.5	11.1	4.7	NA	NA	NA
7.	Sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or college resources/requesting a senior colleague to speak	28.8	55.3	11.5	4.5	27.4	39.7	32.9
8.	Reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police /filing an official complaint	30.4	31.6	15.8	22.2	32.1	37.5	30.4
9	Others	51.02	34.7	6.1	8.2	NA	NA	NA
10.	Friendly verbal reminder	NA	NA	NA	NA	2.4	44.0	53.6
11.	Suspension from class	NA	NA	NA	NA	10.6	35.6	53.8
12.	Threatening to deduct marks	NA	NA	NA	NA	28.0	36.0	36.0

*NA: Not included in the study

From the above review of literature, study in this area is scarce and mainly in the United States of America. To fill this gap in literature therefore, the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) was adapted to fit the context of this study, which was a College of Education (sub-degree students) and an African society (Nigeria).

Methodology

The Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) was used to collect data for this study. The original survey has over 100 items but two sections (responding to classroom incivility and effectiveness of responses to classroom incivility) were extracted and adapted for this study because of the issue of relevance. While the items in the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) were nine in each of the sections, one item in each of the sections was dropped in this study because of their perceived ambiguity in the Nigeria context. The alternative response in the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) in the first section was either yes/no (two-point scale) and very, somewhat, not very and not at all (four-point scale), in the second section but in this study, the alternative responses were often, sometime, rarely and never (four-point scale) for both sections. Each of the sections of the adapted survey which contains 8 items was used to generate data for each of the research questions. There was no need to tamper with the original language of the Survey (English) as the respondents received all their education in English Language. Permission to use the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) was obtained from Dr. Kennedy M. John. Survey was used for this study because the respondents were students of a College of Education who were all literates and could respond to surveys, so this made the use of survey in this context appropriate (Nwana, 1990). Survey was also used because it was convenient and one of the easiest ways of getting to respondents and responses quickly (Akuezuilo & Agu, 2004).

A total of 120 (males and females) second year (200 Level) students of a College of Education in North- Central Nigeria were purposely selected for this study. The College and set of students who were chosen was because of ease of access. Survey was administered on 120 students but only 75 (62.5%) were retrieved.
The data collected was entered into SPSS 21.0 and analyzed using simple percentages.

Findings

The findings of this study are discussed based on the two research question raised.
Research question 1: What strategies do lecturers adopt in addressing classroom incivility? The data collected in respect of research question 1 is presented on Table 3

Table 3 *Strategies adopted in addressing classroom incivility*

S/No.	**Do your lecturers do this in response to the above classroom behaviours**	Often /Sometime (%)	Rarely/ Never (%)	Mean	SD
1.	Ignored the problem or decided not to take action	83.1	16.9	8.13	21.74
2.	Addressed the students involved or entire class during class time	56.7	43.2	3.88	11.18
3.	Spoke with the students involved outside of class time	47.3	52.7	3.67	11.21
4.	Changed course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline	43.9	56.2	5.39	15.63
5.	Made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students	50.7	49.3	5.17	15.67
6.	Made class more fun or entertaining	43.3	56.7	3.87	11.22
7.	Sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or	38.9	61.1	6.45	19.4

	college resources				
8.	Reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police	36.5	63.5	3.57	11.22

- Cronbach's Alpha: .71

From Table 3, the most commonly used strategies were: ignored the problem or decided not to take action (83.1%), addressed the students involved or the entire class during class time (56.7%), made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students (50.7%). The least used strategies were: spoke with the students involved outside of class time (47.3%), changed course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline (43.9%), made class fun or entertaining (43.3%), sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or college resources (38.9%) and reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police (36.5%).

Research question 2: How effective are the strategies adopted by lecturers in addressing incivility?

The data regarding the responses to research 2 are presented on Table 4

Table 4 *Effectiveness of strategies adopted in addressing classroom incivility*

S/No.	**How effective are these in reducing classroom problems?**	Often /Sometime (%)	Rarely/ Never (%)	Mean	SD
1.	Ignored the problem or decided not to take action	52.1	47.9	7.69	21.86
2.	Addressed the students involved or entire class during class time	52.1	47.9	7.79	21.83
3.	Spoke with the students involved outside of class time	46.4	53.6	10.29	26.36
4.	Changed course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline	56.5	43.5	10.13	26.40
5.	Made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students	40	60	9.07	24.22
6.	Made class more fun or entertaining	53.6	46.4	10.08	26.42
7.	Sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or college resources	46.5	53.5	7.49	21.90
8.	Reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police	38	62	7.653	21.86

- Cronbach's Alpha: .76

Table 4 shows that the most effective strategies were: changed course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline (56.5%), made class more fun or entertaining (53.6%), ignored the problem or decided not to take action (52.1%) and addressed the students involved or entire class during class time (52.1%). The least effective strategies were: sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or college resources (46.5%), spoke with the students involved outside of class time (46.4%), made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students (40%) and reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police (38%).

Discussion

The findings of this study regarding the strategies adopted in addressing classroom incivility and the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) appear to differ. For instance, in the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) the most used strategies were: addressed the students involved or the entire class during class time (79.9%), spoke with the students involved outside of class time (77.4%) and sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or college resources (65.8%) while the least used strategies were: made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students (91.1%), reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police (82.4%) and change course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline (72.3%). This is as against this study where the most used strategies were: ignored the problem or decided not to take action (83.1%), addressed the students involved or entire class during class time (56.7%) and made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students (50.7%) while the least used strategies were: spoke with the students involved outside of class time (47.3%), change course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline (43.9%), made class more fun or entertaining (43.3%), sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or college resources (38.9%) and reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police (36.5%)

As regards the effectiveness of the strategies adopted in addressing classroom incivility, the findings of this study and the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) are slightly inconsistent. In the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000), the most effective strategies were: spoke with the students involved outside of class time (52.1%), other responses (51.0%) and addressed the students involved or the entire class during class time (38.0%) while the least effective strategies were: made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students (26.5%), reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police (26.5%) and ignored the problem or decided not to take action (17.6%). In this study, the most effective strategies were: changed course requirements, grading criteria, and/or deadline (56.5%), made class more fun or entertaining (53.6%), ignored the problem or decided not to take action (52.1%) and addressed the students involved or entire class during class time (52.1%) while the least effective strategies were: sought advice from colleagues or other departmental or college resources (46.5%), spoke with the students involved outside of class time (46.4%), made tests or assignments easier or dropped a requirement to pacify disruptive students (40%) and reported a student's behaviour to the department, college officials, or police (38%).

The inconsistency between the findings of these two studies may be hypothesized to be because of the difference in the context of the two studies. First, the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) was developed for faculty and postgraduates instructors but it was administered in this study on pre-service sub-degree students. Second, the Survey was developed and used in the United States of America, a developed society but it was adapted and used in this study in Nigeria, an Africa developing nation.

Conclusion

The findings of this study suggest that lecturers used several strategies in particular in addressing classroom incivility but some were used less often than others. Similarly, some of the strategies used were suggested to be more effective than others. These two suggestions are largely consistent with earlier studies by Alberts, Hazen and Theobold (2010) and Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000). However, in relation to the use of strategies and their effectiveness, the findings of this study tend to differ from similar ones cited here. It is therefore, recommended that lecturers should try their hands at all of the strategies rather than concentrating on a few; so as to put them in the right position to assess which of the strategies works best for them.

However, as result of the small sample size and convenience sample used in this study, generalizations from this study have to be made with caution. This is in addition to the limitations associated with the use of surveys generally especially the survey adapted in this study which was developed in the west and used in a different environment and culture. Lastly, the Indiana University Survey on Academic Incivility (2000) was designed for faculty and instructors but it was adapted and used in this study for pre-service sub-degree students. All these variables may collectively or singly have impacted on the findings of this study. Therefore, this research could be replicated in future with a larger sample and with faculty instead of pre-service teachers used in this study.

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The system of lifelong education in business sphere: new decisions for its development

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Abstract
The author considers the problem of decision-taking in the sphere of education and professional development in the production and business sphere. The history of professional development in Russia is rather long and complicated. Relationship between educators and employers can be described as difficult and conflicting. It is shown that when the state "leaves" the system of professional development and does not take systemic decisions, the state system of training and education weakens; meanwhile the system of corporative education develops independently. Unfortunately, the institutions of vocational education did not find their reputable place in the 1990s. However, former sectoral systems of further training took up the call of the new time, the lack of budget led to their searching for bread-winner and therefore for the solutions, connected with the demand of real labor market. The author proves the necessity of reciprocal action of corporative education and the system of professional development and offers the forms and methods of their efficient interaction.

Keywords: Decision-taking in the sphere of education and professional development in production and business, Corporative education, System of professional training, Lifelong education.

"An investment in knowledge always pays the best interest".
B. Franklin

Introduction

An axiom that personnel always decided everything does not go out of date; however, to grow old is the nature of personnel itself. In modern Russia staff shortage is seriously felt everywhere and especially in the sphere of production. It is known that the economy destruction in the 1990s, the lack of financing or insufficient financing of science and education led to staff turnover both from industry, education and science.

Today the problems with personnel become a serious obstacle on the way of the development of the country's economy and manufacturing. It is clear for the authorities; production structures recognize it as well and try to find the way out. For a number of reasons it is important to focus upon the professional development. The recent surveys show:"The human resource department managers consider professional development to be the most important mechanism to overcome the lack of personnel. In the context of a heavy deficit of qualified staff, 70% of companies regard the professional development of the staff to be priority number one and only 11% of them find a solution in recruitment of the staff from the outside. Speaking about the mechanisms they use to fight with the shortage of the workforce, 67% of HR-managers named the development of the necessary qualifications inside the company, while only 56% of HR-managers admitted recruiting of employees from the market as a tool of overcoming the deficit" (IBS, 2012).

To understand the situation with professional development it is necessary to give a short excursus into at least recent history of retraining.

The History of Professional Retraining in Russia

The personnel for economy and industry – from workers to managers – are trained in the system of professional education. To say that it has undergone changes is to say nothing. Various levels of professional education have developed differently since the 1990s. Primary vocational education was seriously affected by the decline of production, plant closure and insufficient financing of education. Thousands of vocational technical schools were closed all over the country, their graduates not being claimed by the collapsing Russian economy. Social effects of this closing were extremely grave, financial positions of the families of those who went to study at technical training schools became worse, because previously, at the Soviet time, it was the state that assumed the liability to maintain the process of education at the technical schools and provided the students with uniform, meals and accommodation in hostels. In the 1990s the criminal situation deteriorated due to joblessness of teenagers and young people who had been subjected to constant pedagogical work at technical schools. When the recovery of the economy began, it was found out that there were practically no personnel to restart the previous and to organize the new production at factories and plants. They went to other spheres (trading imported goods or folk arts in particular), they lost qualification, grew old or succumbed to drunkenness. Despite a series of decisions the situation is not amended even today. The hopes in some Russian regions that business would incur responsibility for personnel training for their own enterprises were not realized. That was done only by few companies. Professional training is provided by employment agencies, but because of insufficient reciprocal action of labor market and these services, the budget assigned by the state for these purposed is expended also not efficiently enough.

In the opinion of the Russian researcher "in a number of big corporations specialists, teachers, tutors, instructors etc are prepared from highly qualified workers, team leaders, foremen, engineers to teach and train the personnel of mass professions" (Silkina, 2006). These specialists are engaged in professional retraining at the workplaces.

Much attention is paid to the education at work in western countries. "Our research shows that 68% of participants consider training at work to be effective and 50% of participants suppose corporative training to be useful" Almost a half (45%) of office-seekers had primary training at the expense of the employer when they got a job (Logan, 2012).

The same difficult situation was with the next level of professional training – the secondary vocational education in Russia during last 20-25 years. However, training specialists for social (education, healthcare), finance and economic sphere (banking, accounting), sectoral training of middle level specialists in the most important industries (transport, communication etc), independent reorganization of these secondary vocational educational institutions to the category of universities, decisions to train bachelors on the basis of these institutions to a greater extent allowed to preserve technical schools and colleges rather than vocational schools.

Higher professional education at present has the closest relations with the labor market along with its highest autonomy. According to the author's opinion mentioned above, "relationship between educators and employers can be described as difficult and conflicting. At present their relations are created by different ways:

- positive interaction of the higher educational institution and enterprise manifested in the following: the interest of enterprise in graduates of the university, providing students with practice, support for scientific researches in university laboratories, improvement of the material base of the university for carrying out researches and upbringing young scientists, introduction of scientific researches of university scientists into production. There are many examples of such experience, and it takes its understanding and transformation into efficiently functioning mechanism;

- mutual demands and claims: the employer is not happy with the system of training at the universities, but he undertakes nothing to influence the situation. However here we see renunciation of theoretical reproofs; now the representatives of universities and employers negotiate more often.

A positive fact is that the third component – the absence of any interaction – has disappeared. There are less indifferent employers among the big ones: they understand that the future of one or another manufacturing industry depends on the quality of the work of the higher educational institution. This understanding stimulates more active transition of the representatives of the labour market from the position of a detached observer and critics to the position of actors taking an active part in overall improvement of the conditions for realization of education and creation of clear requirements for the graduates. The employers should more actively respond to the invitations of universities to take part in the development of standards for the higher education, in definition of specialities and specializations, in forming the list of necessary competences" (Ivanova, 2009).

The problem of creating a system of professional qualifications is defined as important but not being solved yet in the article of V.V. Putin "Fair society and economy organization is the main condition of our steady growth in these years" (Putin, 2012). It is obvious that the way for the development of the higher education and the development of industry and economy should involve reciprocal action and general strategy of advancing.

Present State of the System of Professional Retraining in Russia

Professional training becomes an important issue because of both the specificity of the present moment in the economy and the condition of the system of higher education existing at the moment. The author periodically addresses to the problem of professional development and retraining of the representatives of business structures and it allows observing its motion in whole. Partially this motion can be considered a progressive movement. And what impedes the full-grown development? As usual the problems are connected with decision-taking and firstly from the point of view of its validity.

The system of professional development has existed in our country for many years. It is based on the worker's universities, the idea of which was given and their management was carried out by A. Bogdanov. The formation of these structures by the sectoral principle under the instructive and methodological guidance of the state authority in educational sphere led to positive results. In the 1990s, the years of general breakdown in Russia, the system ruptured and fell behind having experienced dramatic lack of financing, but it carried on its existence in different forms of the professional development sphere including those historically emerged in the sphere of professional development.

Analysis of the situation of the 1990s and the beginning of the 2000s in Russia, carried out by the author several years ago, gave an idea of troubles in education organization, professional training in state and non-governmental companies, in the system of personnel education in general. It was found out that businesses did not clearly understand the role of systematic professional development and lifelong education, while existing educational institutions and organizations were not ready to be engaged in organization of professional development for business in up-to-date stage. On a large scale there was a gap between the request, which however had not been clearly articulated, and the possibilities of educational institutions, which worked according to obsolete patterns and did not get distinct calls for their new role in new conditions, therefore the relationships between industrial structures and educational ones were poor.

Several years ago the author stated that “the systematic lifelong education does not exist as an organized and regular phenomenon, […] various systems of education in big industrial and commercial structures were not developed and are not used widely in mass practice of continuous education. Unfortunately, the institutions of vocational education did not find their reputable place in Russia” (Ivanova, 2009). The research carried out by Coulso-Thomas in 1999-2000 and involved 69 companies also testified that throughout the world “corporative education is at the crossroads. Existing courses and programs have almost been exhausted and it is necessary to look for new methods and technologies […] In many cases companies do not have distinct goals and they have no clear understanding of what to do and how behave in the sphere of education” (Career Adviser, 2012).

Previous opinion of the businesses’ management that the traditional system of professional development would ruin the realization of this goal turned to be wrong. It will be shown below that educational structures solve the problems of organization of continuous education more efficiently than manufacturing ones themselves.

It is pleasant to state that the author’s note that “even with a large number of institutions and organizations of professional development for adults and great attention paid to the problems of continuous education (“lifelong education”), there are no qualitative changes in the system yet” (Ivanova, 2009) appeared to be wrong nowadays. These changes occurred during last ten years. Former sectoral systems of further training took up the call of the new time, the lack of money led to their searching for bread-winner and therefore for finding the solutions connected with the demand of real labor market.

Changes in solutions upon selection of personnel for the system of additional education became noticeable. If there was a flight of staff, it was connected with retiring of those teachers whose level of proficiency was doubtful from the viewpoint of practical knowing of their branch of knowledge. Today in the systems of further training (and not only there) managers of governmental structures, top managers of state corporations and commercial companies lead sub-departments, faculties and areas of training for governmental and sectoral educational institutions and organizations. It is helpful especially in case these managers have academic degrees and ranks. There is no doubt that they are useful for educational structures as leaders-practitioners. There are many examples for it. Not considering it ethical to name these top managers from Administration of President of the Russian Federation, State Duma and Council of Federation, Public Corporation “Russian Railways”, Gazprom, The Russian Union of Industrialists and Entrepreneurs, Chamber of Commerce and Industry of the Russian Federation, Public Chamber etc., we say only that they are supervisors of MBA, the leaders of sub-departments and faculties of various universities (Moscow State University named after Lomonosov, Scientific research university Higher School of Economics, Moscow State University of Foreign Affairs, sectoral universities and academies). The same situation is in Russian regions. According to the observations these busy managers in the most serious way concern both staff education and scientific work, supporting applied scientific research or taking part in it.

We may say that the market of educational service in business sphere practically took final shape, successful trainers and tutors established their own educational organizations and unsuccessful ones did not meet competition. Corporative systems of education are popular today, but the question: aren't they attached more importance than they deserve? – turns out to be non-rhetorical.

Neither poorly educated people can solve strategic problems, efficiently and rationally meet the challenge of the time, make their organization modern, innovative, competitive, nor those who use only their own experience or guidelines of outside advisers, so-called business consultants.

So here it becomes clear, where we need short-term training and where the systematic and steady long-term education is necessary. There is the reason to establish corporate universities. Their founders also note that corporate educational structure not only teaches but with the right statement of the question it influences the formation of the common corporate ideology, the image of the company and its staff, it develops creative approaches, creates conditions for the development strategic ideas and accumulates them.

Corporate Systems of Retraining in Russia

What creates the basis for the decision about establishment of corporate system of education? The answer is in actual for certain commercial structure content training, involvement into everyday practical activity ("case study"), forming the skills necessary for the personnel of a certain organization by means of training, team-building and obtaining information about the activity of all the sub-divisions by every studying employee. We can add also rather wide possibilities of "network" or "cascade" approach in forms of organization of corporate education. The author stated previously that "successfulness of this approach application depends on the number of factors: the quality of education on the upper levels, the quality and availability of educational materials, unified grounding of all teachers and coaches, possibility of interaction during studies of the learners of upper levels with those of the lower levels" (Ivanova, 2009). The question of the quality of educational programs and correspondence between technologies and the level and requirements of the learners became the most important one. Everything looks positive at first glance.

Corporate Retraining in Big Companies

Now let's look at what is going on with educational corporations established by big private companies and state corporations in practice. In many cases the expense spent for their foundation was worth it only in part. The company's staff studies constantly, but it has a heavy incidence upon the budget of the industrial structure, and there are sound claims for these educational structures to earn money by themselves.

Business is pragmatic in its decisions, and education is rather costly. In the survey of Coulso-Thomas mentioned above we find the following: "Many courses are characterized by the general direction and do not meet specific requirements. Moreover, they have strictly internal direction not going beyond the scope of the organization (company). The needs and desires of consumers and companies' business associates are left aside of attention. Now existing information and knowledge is being changed, but the activity connected with education and professional development does not influence formation and use of new knowledge and intellectual potential. The possibilities of collaboration are not used properly. In many companies professional training and education is still concerned to be company's costs although this activity may eventually become profitable for the organization and reveal new sources of income" (Career Adviser, 2012). Taking into account considerably late establishment of the corporate systems of education in Russia we can safely attribute this ten-year old statement for the present period.

Expert judgment of opinions of the two categories (top managers and middle-level managers) in the systems of corporate educations in some organizations (under the condition of anonymity) showed dispersion in negative area: from absolute discontent ("a waste of time") to expectation of the results in future ("something may be useful"). In spite of search of modern educational technologies and considerable funds spent for material and technical support of such educational process, the learners often do not approve it; as the creation of educational situation imitating real production process does not suit people upgrade professional skills. Their productive life is much more difficult than the game like "Monopoly" and other "performances" and "simulacra" introduced into the educational situation. It is another reason for demand for coming managers and practitioners to education. Here dichotomous decisions are necessary which during professional training of specialists allow to combine successfully information about new tendencies of the development of science and production and real practice offering complicated, not mediated by simplistic approach patterns of actions.

Great attention today is paid to the following area of professional training. Top and middle-level managers, experienced staff take education improving their level (MBA, post-graduate education, doctoral candidacy etc), and specialists are trained at their working places. Under certain conditions it can really create a cumulative effect of productivity of the whole structure work. Let's again appeal to the data of the research of a global recruiting agency Hays: "applicants highly evaluate the effectiveness of education at work and consider the companies to develop and promote trainee programs actively… More than 1000 young people took part in the survey. The following answers were got for the question about the kind of education which would allow them to reach aggrandizement: education at work – 93%, training as an "apprentice" – 90%, probation period – 84%, higher education – 78%" (Silkina, 2006).

It should be mentioned that according to different data in various countries of the world on all continents professional development is organized as a combination of in-house (through tutorship, sharing of the working experience, exchanging of functions and changing of functions under the supervision of experienced employees) and distance education (in various external educational organizations and institutions) (Malenkova, 2007).

Corporate Retraining in Middle and Small Businesses

This situation is typical for big corporations in general. What is going on in a mass practice of small and middle business? Changes are not so considerable there. Main tendency looks like that: the items of expenses for education are small; the training process is not systematic and is held on case of production necessity (delivery of the new equipment, problems with clients etc.). Company's management which seldom advances in skills does not view education in the light of professional understanding of the role and place of education. We state two ordinary cases. In the first one hiring a well-paid trainer for two days managers supposes the effect to come tomorrow. In the second case the management having organized systematic education cannot notice later the contribution of this education in mediated and remote successful results of work. In the opinion of some researchers and organizers of corporate education, surface approaches prevail over the problem of professional training not corresponding modern demands in many organizations (IBS, 2012, Logan, 2012).

Certainly any more or less serious commercial structure of a small business trains its staff; an individual entrepreneur seeks for courses or business trainings in the Internet. According to the surveys of educational service market, short-term activity especially in the area of sales training is claimed more. But it should be remembered that a two-day workshop cannot bring quick and “long-life” effects (although any education is useful!) and systematic education is directly reflected in the quality of the personnel work and has its own share in percent of steady perspective success. Short-term activity is very useful when we speak about everyday goals and team’s activity and under the condition its definite periodicity. It is important and possible with the help of short trainings to solve (for a definite period) the problems of time-management, organizing circulation of the documents, inside schedule of the day, office work, the system of current reporting, the business protocol, etiquette and corporative ethics.

In evidence let’s adduce data of the research held by the National Center for Educational Quality Enhancement (the USA): the raise for 10% of the costs for the increase of the level of education of the staff raises their productivity for 8.6%. At that time 10% increase of investments to the equipment leads to the increase of productivity only for 3.4%. According to the data of Chicago Institute of Profit Advisors availability of training programs directly influences the increase of the profit rate of the company (cited in Ivanova, 2009).

Analysis and Discussion

Researches held in December of 2011 by the Centre of Research and Analytics Amplua Insights and portal Trainings.ru showed certain problems in the area of professional development in Russian business. Representatives of 81 client companies (HR- and T&D experts) and 45 providing companies (representatives of training and consulting companies) took part in the survey. It is found that on average there are 377 employers for one employee of the system of corporate education in Russia. In comparison with western companies this ratio is rather small. For instance, in the USA this ratio is 187 people (according to Bersin & Assosiates) for one specialist in education. In Russia, the lack of staff causes difficulties with the organization of education and unfortunately, as it is mentioned in the research, this tendency will continue. It is stated that companies focus on the development of personnel pool and that this goal along with attraction and retention of talents will be actual during next several years. It is stipulated both by economic situation and constant instability and the lack of skilled and loyal personnel. The increase in funding for education may appear unimportant during the trend for the growth of the scope of the tasks in the sphere of staff management. Analysts researching the content of training stated the following: in spite of the fact that an enormous part of the budget for education is spent for general courses devoted to “team work” and “leadership”, it is surprising that neither “team-building” nor “leadership” is seen in collaboration with the other companies. The majority of big organizations taking part in surveys try to solve alone such problems as choosing the most appropriate educational technology, reducing educational costs, training “per capita”. The possibilities of collaboration, consolidation and specialization on the basis of comparative advantage remain unused, but they could give acceptable solutions of these problems. It is necessary to spend more efforts for joint planning, personnel solutions and mutual use of resources. In consequence of this research it was concluded that many companies would “complete”, or improve their systems (Amplua Insights, 2012).

Therefore, it is obvious that in general business structures are not ready for knowledge management, for use of this resource in order to develop their business efficiently and "shot-like", and they do not consider education to be the mechanism and factor of innovative development. On the other hand, the system of vocational training and professional development as usual can hardly find common grounds with business; it does not meet the demands of business or cannot demonstrate its possibilities.

Every executor should have a high motivation to work at the business structure, and it is necessary to spend time and other resources for explanation the goal sense of the organization and formation personality objectives.

Reflection upon joint activity always brings tangible results, form efficiently working team aiming for a success. Indifference and incomprehension of general goals, ignorance of all space of activity involves absence of victory motivation, lack of united team spirit, what is destructive for any organization. All this is created by the steady work at specially organized educational situation, and it is an important reason to found a standing educational structure in a large commercial organization. Is the system of vocational training able to offer such a format? It changes significantly the essence of professional development; it is a serious call for changing approaches, for changing "educational offer" from the institutions of vocational training.

The world education is one of the best studied spheres both as a part of society and an area of scientific knowledge. The results can be predicted to a certain extent, and they are defined by application of certain approaches, technologies, methods, forms and modes. The most effective and rational ways appear when the educational institution is founded with its distinct structure and its own zone of responsibility or in case of appeal to existing steadily working institutions of professional training as permanent partners, holding the same views, carrying out scientific research and testing new approaches. In this case there is no place for pseudo-new technologies and methods, for instance in the form of mass quasi-educational actions or totalitarian educational ideas.

It is necessary to be prepared to become efficiently working businessman. Therefore, it is important to be prepared for perception and realization of a personal activity as a personal value, as a personal implementation through performance of an important social role. However value-based attitude towards a personal activity is not always specified; it is formed in the process of cognition. Such forming is important both for business owners and hired managers and for ordinary employees. To disclose sense, to demonstrate importance one or other action for personality, to discuss perspectives of development and organization and personality itself is hard to be done in operating conditions, in the process of obtaining knowledge and discussion of certain issues of current activity.

The work with personnel is known to consist of two parts: selection and education. Several years ago the focus shifted for the search of new persons, but education according to the goals set was undertaken to a small degree. At that time coaching as a new method appeared but it did not solve all problems and did not become a panacea. Surveys show that gradually employers begin understanding that it is impossible to get ready specialists out of graduates from universities; either gain them over from the other enterprises, or find them by any other way. It is necessary to teach them according to the goals of a certain business by all acceptable means, spending money not only for the education itself, but for its organization and control.

If we look at the education from social, psychological and philosophical points of view, we should state that, in our opinion, the main sense and primary task of modern education is connected with acquisition by man the following competences as the fundamental ones: the skills of interaction with various communities where he lives (the world of nature, of technology, the world of people, his own inner world); abilities to use knowledge obtained for taking correct decision according to the situation.
This statement should be kept in mind for setting goals of continuous systematic education of the specialists in an industrial sphere.

Let's turn to systematic character of post-graduate education in order to emphasize one more time its significance under the conditions of rapidly changing political, social and economic realities, innumerable multiplying technologies in information world. The fact of education testifies to the availability of certain educational environments, which characteristics not only influence, but determine the quality and a success of education. At the same time characteristics of the social environment appear to be very important. Here we shall call it a mega-environment; it influencing educational sphere directly and rather actively.

For positive, not destructive influence of mega-environment upon the process of education of the staff for commercial structures it is necessary to organize its convenience for a certain system of education, acceptance of the results of education. Primarily it means a successful work of all learners and their high adaptability in this mega-environment.

Conclusion
Taking into account our findings we can state the following: while education as a whole is a part of society as a mega-system, lifelong education of professional personnel should become a competent and compulsory part of industrial and economic mega-environment.

Efficiency in the system of continuous vocational training is defined with the following factors under objectively existing interaction:

- availability of theoretic basis dominating in industrial economic mega-environment and their reflection in educational environment;
- the rate of dependence of educational environment on official purposes in certain business structures and correspondence of these purposes to real state of mega-environment;
- the level of motivation of the subjects of educational environment forming by mega-environment and purposes mentioned above;
- the level of abilities of the learner as a separate member of a mega-environment and his readiness for studying in a given educational environment;
- the rate of professional aptitude of the representatives of educational environment and their correspondence to a mega-environment;
- availability of asocial closed groups or communities in educational environment;
- availability of traditions dominating in a given educational environment and their adequacy to the traditions of a mega-environment;
- the rate of openness of information necessary for educational environment in regard to a mega-environment;

- availability of scientific pedagogical literature, educational methodical materials and programs for providing educational structure corresponding the time that is a modern condition of a mega-environment;
- the rate of demand for people obtaining education in a given educational environment from the side of mega-environment.

Under modern conditions of the development of Russian society and economy it is necessary to pay more attention to the formation of social responsibility, self-consciousness, culture, tolerance, ability for a successful socialization and adaptation for a modern mega-environment.

In our opinion, only in this way a steady model of a modern lifelong education can be formed, which can be identified by various indications, can be subject to planned changes with predicted (expected) results, which for all their novelty retain system qualities of a model. It can be seen that this definition looks rather independent feature of the system of a continuous vocational training, which is designed to become one of the supporting structures of a modern mega-environment meeting challenges of time.

This idea can be explained on a broader example. Education is known to be a compulsory segment of society at the macro level. It is influenced by fundamental factors of a different nature (economy, political system, science, business, cultural traditions of the society, even international relations etc), and in its turn influences them through the state policy in educational sphere and through its own mechanisms and factors. In this sense it is possible to fix direct and reverse relations between education as institutional construction and social environment where the system of education is submerged and which part it appears to be. Interrelations between them are extremely complicated and as a rule last for a long time. Changing social environment always needs adequate changes in the system of education, firstly, in the sphere of goal setting. At the same time it should have mechanisms of achievement of the desired objectives, base for adaptable changes under the conditions of rapidly changing social environment.

In terms of lifelong economic education, at this specific micro level the same processes take place with their own goals and objectives and specific methods of their solution. Education here both feels the effects of political and economic life of the country and depends on the period and stage of political development, the balance of political forces, the state of economy and financial sphere, market mechanisms, and on direct influence of governmental and administrative power due to the specificity of forming social and political space in modern Russia. The logics of the development of educational systems in the world and inside Russia shows that relations can be various in their complexity and diversity, but they should remain interrelations. The impact of social, political, economic mega-environment should be the factor of establishment and development of business education, determination of its content and forms.

For this reason during organization of lifelong business education under overwhelming impact of mega-environment the scientific approach towards the content of education should be admitted priority; it is scientific analysis, experts' appraisals of scientific community and scientific vision of processes, scientific grounds of technologies and methods of practical activity that can improve the efficiency of education. Not belittling the importance of sharing experience, not doubting usefulness of directions and practice we accentuate that only scientific explanation of activity, understanding original causes and preliminary assessment of future results with the help of scientific instruments, understanding the laws of social and economic development change qualitatively the level of knowledge of the learners and as a result the effectiveness of their work in future.

Modern, practically feasible approach to target, practice-oriented education needs the use of a number of educational approaches and technologies within a special complex.

The question whether to study or not to study does not appear to be the main in educational strategy of the 21stcentury. The problem of organization of the effective system of lifelong education is likely to become the most principle one now.

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When Confucianism Meets Ubuntu: Rediscovering Justice, Morality and Practicality for Education and Development

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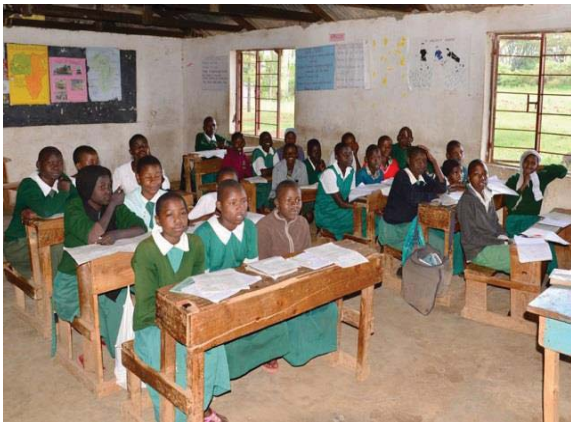
Introduction

The hospitality, sincerity and friendship of the local people encountered in Africa, and their values of diligence, education and community life, and their spirit in the ethical treatment of people and nature can all be seen as *Ubuntu*, a philosophical concept in Africa.

The ideal of *Ubuntu* ushers to a humanistic re-orientation for education and development in a critical time, when neo-liberal ideology is bearing fruit in educational standardization, managerialism, commercialization, competitiveness, and more pervasively, modernization and globalization, all dominated by the hegemony of a global capitalist system. Since the Industrial Revolution of the 18th century, capitalism has aggressively extended its visible and invisible tentacles to almost all aspects of human life around the globe and globalization has amplified its reach under post-colonial conditions. It is a critical time, a time when we must interrogate our educational realities, which have too long been ideologically distorted, systematically de-humanized and instrumentalized in ways that serve the global dominance of advantaged groups or societies. This is evident worldwide in the increasing polarization between the masses and a few elites, South and North, in recent decades. What was originally a multi-faceted mission of education for human beings has been reduced, institutionally, to a largely technical exercise, oftentimes in the questionable form of economic returns, skills training, credentialism, performance-oriented policies, or/and global ranking of quantifiable achievements, such as the ongoing movement paved with the OECD Program for International Student Assessment (PISA).Unfortunately, humanistic education has a doubtful future, and excellence without a soul has been widely observed in our realities of education across institutions in various contexts (Lewis, 2007).



Ubuntu: Education is highly valued in Africa. The motto of this poor primary school is a strong one – "Hard Work Pays".

Photo by Jun Li, Nakuru, Kenya, 28 Jun., 2014

The idea of *Ubuntu* in South African countries refers to a humanistic orientation towards fellow beings with an emphasis on personhood, humanity, humaneness and morality (Mokgoro, 1998). Although *Ubuntu* has many variants, such as *Umunthu* (Zambia), *Umundu*

(Malawi), *Bunhu* (Mozambique, Zimbabwe and Swaziland), and *Botho* (Botswana and South Africa), core to its varied forms are “humanity”, “morality” and “collective welfare” (Mokgoro, 1998, p. 15), in which the African way of life is rooted. In fact, it has wider resonance in other parts of the world, such that a dialogue among civilizations is both possible and imperative.

Echoing *Ubuntu*, Confucianism foregrounds the moral relationships of individuals or groups in a societal context, offering an East Asian way of life, which is commonly shared in China, Hong Kong, Japan, Macao, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, Vietnam and beyond. Although Confucianism has evolved intovariant forms over 2,500 years, its central framework has remained centered on ethics and its tenets can be summed up in the Five Constant Virtues of a gentleperson, i.e., *Ren* (Benevolence), *Yi* (Righteousness), *Li* (Propriety), *Zhi* (Wisdom) and *Xin* (Sincerity), clustered around the core Confucian ideal of *Zhong-Yong* (the Golden Mean), the highest value of Confucian philosophy (Li, 2009).

Education for Love and Peace

For Confucianists, it is impossible to become a gentleperson without the virtue of *Ren* (benevolence) (Tu, 1979). Literally *Ren* (仁) means compassion, benevolence or simply love – “to love your fellow people (仁者愛人 *Ren zhe Ai Ren*)” (*The Analects of Confucius*, 12.22). The connotations of “*Ren zhe Ai Ren*” can be more accurately understood from their respective etymologies. The Chinese character for the first *Ren* is 仁, composed of 亻 (human) in the left and 二(two) in the right, pictographically carries the meaning of intimate relationships between two people (Xu, n.d., 8.1). Meanwhile, its pronunciation echoes exactly that of the second *Ren* (人), which is the most commonly used Chinese character referring to human beings. The word root for *Ai* (愛) means heartfelt and ongoing longing, sympathy and caring for others (Xu, n.d., 5.2), and it is the exactly equivalent term for love in English language.

Ren (仁) was envisioned by Confucianists as a foundational value, a call to love other people with a sincere heart, through which harmony and peace can be achieved among human beings and amonghumans, nature and universes. Human beings are to be freed and cultivated first through morality before excellence can be achieved. In essence, the ultimate mission of Confucian education is for love and peace in China’s ancient ideal of the Great Harmony (*The Records of Rites*, 9), and such a liberal idea from classical and neo-Confucianism should be promoted in education around the world today (de Bary, 2007).

Education as Social Justice

With love and peace as the core values for a humanistic education, Confucius extended his mission to include social justice as well. He did not promote *Ren* (仁) alone, but instead always advocated *Yi* (Righteousness) alongside it. The twin values have been so interconnected with each other that a person demonstrating both love and righteousness becomes noble (de Bary, 2004). Additionally, Confucius expected that both *Ren* and *Yi* be accompanied by *Li* (Propriety), a form of social agreement for proper conduct and behavior in a moral sense.

With these humanistic concepts, Confucius believed that through education and self-cultivation every ordinary individual was equally capableof becoming a sage-king and contributing to society. Based on this idea, Confucius proposed *You Jiao Wu Lei* (*The Analects of Confucius*, 15.39), literally education without discrimination, the first ideal concept of Education for All (EFA) in human history. He further elaborated that the supreme virtue of benevolence involves unreservedly loving everybody and assisting them (*The Analects of Confucius*, 6.30). More importantly, he was not only a philosopher but was committed to making education available in reality to everybody with a thirst for knowledge. As a pioneer who opened the first private academy two thousand five hundred years ago, he taught more than 3,000 disciples over his life-time.

With a somewhat different connotation, *Ubuntu* in South Africa equates social justice with "the proper relationships between a human person and the universe, between the person and nature, between the person and other persons... it regulates the relationship of the universe" (Bhengu, 2006, p. 30). *Ubuntu* as social justice is also different from what has been developed in the European context, yet has some parallels. The Genevan philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1968) articulated the viewpoint that the legitimacy of a society relies on the social contract, an equitable one common to all. Two hundred years later, John Rawls argued that social justice as fairness should be defended for the priority of what is right (Sandel, 1998). Letseka (2014) observes that there actually exists an interconnectedness between Europe and Africa in the notion of *Ubuntu* as fairness.

Education for social justice or EFA is indeed a universal, rich value which promotes learning, teaching and schooling for all in various societal contexts, and it has been advocated differently in diverse civilizations. Regretfully, such a value is still far more an ideal than a reality, as is globally evident in the increasing gap between the poor and the rich, the disadvantaged and the advantaged.

Education and Moral Cultivation

Like *Ubuntu*, Confucianism views morality as the philosophical foundation for education. The Five Constant Virtues of a gentleperson, i.e., *Ren* (Benevolence), *Yi* (Righteousness), *Li* (Propriety), *Zhi* (Wisdom) and *Xin* (Sincerity), are all key moral elements that should be cultivated through a humanistic education. In the Confucian tradition, the ultimate aim of higher education is to "let one's innate virtue shine forth, to renew the people, and to rest in the highest good" (*The Great Learning*, 1.1). The ideal Confucian value has been carried forward to modern times by neo-Confucian scholars such as Ch'ien Mu, who anticipated a new Chinese model of the university. In his widely cited article on *The Ideal of the University*, Ch'ien (1943) criticized the popularity of commercial and Western orientations of university education in China driven by capitalism and colonialism, and advocated humanistic emancipation through forms of higher education that stimulated indigenous culture and ethics. His pursuit of moral cultivation has been carried on by his disciples (Yu, 1974).Such a new interpretation of Confucianism has recently been revived in the ideal of the Chinese University 3.0 (Li& Hayhoe, 2013; Li, 2015), a new stage of Chinese higher education that is rooted in indigenous morality, democracy and diversity with a renewed mission in the context of globalization.

To achieve the moral goal of education, Confucianism has attached great importance to the interwoven Eight Steps of moral cultivation, beginning with the investigation of things and extension of knowledge, going through self-cultivation of personhood and the care of family, and ending up with the governance of the state and the making of a peaceful world for all people, all centered on the cultivation of individual morality for social development (Li & Hayhoe, 2011). These Eight Steps are not exclusive to investigation into the natural world. They actually base the interactive and progressive process of learning and education first on the exploration of nature and the self, which are then expanded into moral perfection in terms of the growth of personhood, deontological capacity and ethical wisdom for a benevolent, free and equitable world. It is interesting that a human soul can be nurtured in different ways by *Ubuntu*'s humanity and collectivism, the Confucian Eight Steps, or Plato's enlightening Allegory of the Cave (*The Republic*, 7).

Education towards Diversity

The *Ubuntu* approach to humanities recognizes diversity in terms of language, history and values (Louw, 2008). In a similar vein, both classical Confucianism and neo-Confucianism have given a high value to diversity and tolerance in order to nurture individuality and pluralism in education, rather than a one-size-fits-all conformity. Confucius always focused on heuristic education, enlightening his disciples in accordance with their diverse dispositions and background characteristics, as demonstrated below in the depiction of his actual teaching:

> *Zi Lu* asked, "Should I immediately put into action what I have heard?"
>
> The Master said, "As your father and elder brothers are still alive (to be consulted), how can you just go ahead to do it?"
>
> *Ran You* asked, "Should I immediately put into action what I have heard?"
>
> The Master said, "Yes."
>
> *Gongxi Hua* said, "When *You* (*Zi Lu*) asked whether he should immediately put into action what he had heard, you said as his father and elder brothers were still alive. Yet when *Qiu* (*Ran You*) asked whether he should immediately put into action what he had heard, you answered yes. I am puzzled. May I be enlightened?"
>
> The Master said, "*Qiu* always holds back, so I urged him forward; *You* has more than his own share of energy, I kept him back."
>
> (*The Analects of Confucius*, 11.22)

The Confucian concept of diversity is not only limited to teaching and education, but is extendable to an axiological foundation for ethical judgements and life orientation. Confucius called forharmony with diversity and tolerance (*He er Bu Tong*) (*The Analects of Confucius*, 13.23), and his idea was further developed by his disciples as "all things being nourished together without hurting one another" and "all courses being pursued without being conflictual or mutually exclusive" (*The Doctrine of the Mean*, 30.3). It is in this sense that the mission of education should not be narrowed to a simplistic set of technical tools for serving a capitalist world. Rather, a humanist education with diversity should be able to respect, include, encourage and actualize a vast variety of pedagogical and spiritual beliefs and traditions, institutional forms and endeavours, as well as student backgrounds being favourable to the promotion of inter-cultural and cross-national understanding in a global age.

Education in Practicality for Individual and Societal Development

Confucianism is not merely a philosophy of idealism, but also a pragmatic orientation for educational action and social transformation, as demonstrated by Confucius himself throughout his whole life as a master educator. Such an orientation can be illuminated by *Zhong-Yong*, a Confucian wisdom of the Golden Mean (Lin, 1939). Literally, *Zhong* means central, proper, right or just; and *Yong* carries the meaning of ordinary, mediocre, pragmatic or universal (Ku, 1906, p. 7). To secure *Zhong* (the Mean) and *Yong* (the Normality) is barely to pursue a middle course, but involves a spirit in which humanity and rationality reach a perfect harmony. In fact, *Zhong-Yong* can serve as "a guide for human emotions and actions" (Chai & Chai, 1965, p. 305).Fundamental to the two principles are Confucian values based on pragmatism which is balanced in a collective rationality and ethical commitments for individual and social development, through which harmony and peace are reached and attuned in ways that overcome the tensions between ideals and realities.

Practically, education and development must be viewed as a dynamic, interactive and contextualized process which demands educational policies and reform to be situated, judged and implemented upon constantly changing individuals, society and environment in an uncertain world. An example of the Confucian *Zhong-Yong* can be found in the relationships among schooling, prosperity and population. In Confucian pragmatism, a humanistic education can only be viable through economic abundance coming after the growth of population (*The Analects of Confucius*, 13.9).

The Confucian practicality of *Zhong-Yong* has multiple implications for individual and societal development through education. For example, education must be fashioned to transform an unequal society into one of restorative freedom, which is both benevolent and just, by promoting the social mobility of individuals. In this sense, Confucianism has always accommodated a realist choice for educational excellence. Furthermore, Confucianism has never been satisfied with a utilitarian education, but always extended its ideals to the moral development and transcendence of individuals and society as a whole. The Confucian practicality of *Zhong-Yong* can balance the extreme swings of the pendulum in educational reform and development, between short-sighted instrumentalism, on one hand, and a purely idealized utopia, on the other.

Concluding Remarks: Educational Development, Humanities and Global Dialogue among Civilizations

Our age has been perplexed in face of the dilemma between ideal and reality in education and development over a long time. It has never been more urgent than at the current time to critically re-examine the relationship between education and humanity through dialogue among civilizations (UNESCO, 2005). The philosophy of *Ubuntu* and Confucianism can enlighten us on how education, policy and development should been visage in terms of humanity, humaneness, morality and ethical choices for excellence with a soul. Their wisdom resonates in Christianity, Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism, Shintoism or the philosophy of ancient Greece – all can empower us in alternative ways to more critically examine educational realities around the globe. The Confucian framework of *Zhong-Yong* and the *Ubuntu* way of humanity and morality both shed new light on how education and development can be re-envisioned in more humane ways in future.

Cultural learning from others: African students at a Confucius Institute classroom. The British Council, Goethe Institute and Institute Françaisco-exist also in the same town.

Photo by Jun Li, Yaoundé, Cameroon, 12 Aug., 2014

In the unique city of Hong Kong where the essence of East and West is integrated, it is natural to ask if Confucian values and wisdom can help answer such questions as "Can Hong Kong's educational reforms enable all of its people, its human resources, to become humane talent?" or "Can Hong Kong nurture the kind of Confucian or Christian humanity that includes a high level of moral and spiritual capacity, alongside of the scientific and social knowledge necessary to contribute effectively to all around development in an increasingly globalized world?" (Hayhoe, 2012, p. 279) The fact is that Confucianism had been well-received around the world by over 3.4 million learners in more than 1,300 Confucius Institutes and Classrooms established as educational partnerships within just one decade by 2014 (Liu, 2014, December 7). Like *Ubuntu*, Confucianism is believed to have the unique potential to re-humanize education, and to open up the possibility of a freer and more humane future within the Confucian ideal of the Great Harmony, which in turn finds resonance in *Ubuntu*!

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English Learners from China and Their Stories with English the Language - A Close Look at Chinese ESL Learners

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Abstract
Based on relevant second language acquisition (SLA) theories, this study aims to review and compare the learning experiences of four English learners from China who are currently studying in Hong Kong. Content analysis was conducted with the verbatim transcripts, which revealed while comparing the nature of the participants' second language (L2) input, the types of learning strategies they have employed, the state of their interlanguages, and the types of errors they make. It is hoped that case studies like this will provide empirical investigation into individual L2 learners' English learning experiences, and answer some specific questions on the ground of SLA theories. The recommendation is for instruments like the grammaticality judgement task be employed in language education to catch more information on the nature of learners' interlanguages. Combined with corpus analysis and computer-aided error analysis, it will also add to the body of SLA literature theoretical findings. In a practical sense, it will provide implications to policy makers and language educators regarding their strategic development and curriculum design for English learners, learners in and from China particularly. Constituting a large proportion of English learners in the global education market, Chinese learners make significant differences to international education and development. Tailor-made instruction based on person-to-person comparison that this study attempts to convey will lead to development in a micro scope at the initial stage.

Keywords: Interlanguage, Learning strategy, Fossilization, Explicit knowledge, Implicit knowledge

Introduction

Explicit and Implicit Knowledge
Based on cognitive-psychological process in L2 learning, explicit and implicit knowledge are always related to automatic and effortful processing (Segalowit & Hulstijn, 2005). To be specific, they differ "in the extent to which one has or has not (respectively) an awareness of the regularities underlying the information one has knowledge of, and to what extent one can or cannot (respectively) verbalize these regularities" (Ellis, 2004, p. 228). However, the factor analyses in Ellis (2005) and Ellis and Loewen's (2007) studies only show that they are two variables of knowledge dichotomously correlated. That is to say, the "implicit-explicit distinction" might represent two extremes (as cited in Dekeyser, 2009, p. 121). Given this fact, the present study will follow the dichotomy instead of coining another two less confrontational terms.

Learning Strategies on SLA
Generally speaking, learning strategies are "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). Cohen (1998)

further defines language learning strategies as "processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language" (p. 4).

Language learners are particularly sensitive to learning strategies. Oxford (1990) summarizes factors influencing second/foreign language learners' choices of their learning strategies, namely, motivation, gender, cultural background, attitudes and beliefs, type of task, age, learning stage, as well as learning style. Displayed in Table 1 are key taxonomies proposed on the basis of studies of language learning strategies Oxford's being the most comprehensive (as cited in Latif, n.d., p. 21).

Table 1 *Key taxonomies proposed on the basis of studies of language learning strategies*

Oxford (1990)	O' Malley et al. (1985)	Stern (1992)
Metacognitive strategies	Metacognitive strategies	Management planning strategies
Affective strategies Social strategies	Social-affective strategies	Affective strategies Interpersonal strategies
Cognitive strategies Memory strategies Compensation strategies	Cognitive strategies	Cognitive strategies

The Interlanguage Hypothesis

One of the goals of SLA research is to "determine the L2 learner's L2 grammatical knowledge", namely, interlanguage competence (Lancashmanan & Selinker, 2001, p. 393). Early in 1969, Selinker first proposes the concept of interlanguage in his article Language Transfer. He further introduces to the terrain of SLA the famous Interlanguage Hypothesis in 1972. However, the operational definition of interlanguage remains controversial. The general understanding is that, in the process of learning and approximating the target language, a L2 learner develops a self-contained linguistic system that is different from both the learner's first language (L1) and the target language, hence the more explicit term, interim language (Nemser, 1971). In fact it is variously termed as "approximative system" (Nemser, 1971), "idiosyncratic dialects" or "transitional dialects" (Corder, 1971), etc.

Interlanguage is learner-specific or idiosyncratically related to a learner's L2 learning experience. In other words, any L2 learner who has begun to learn, but not yet achieved proficiency like native speakers has his/her own interlanguage, which differs from anybody else'. It is also hard to compare the development of individual learners' interlanguage grammars effectively (Lancashmanan & Selinker, 2001). However, learners with the same mother language may share more in common. This is particularly evident when linguistic analysis of L2 corpora is applied. One of the two main approaches to this is the Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis, which "compares learner productions to either native corpora or corpora of other learners (e.g., different levels, different L1s), or both" (Myles, 2005, p. 378). Based on this, the other approach, computer-aided error analysis, will be able to guide L2 learners away from the potential traps in an efficient manner.

Another goal of SLA research is to explain how interlanguage competence "develops over time from an initial state to an end state, that is, a fossilized state" (Lancashmanan & Selinker, 2001, p. 393). Selinker explains that "fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language", no matter how old the learner is and what instructions he/she has received (1972, p. 215). The interlanguage rules are shaped by L1 transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning (e.g., simplification), strategies of L2 communication, and overgeneralization of the target language patterns (Lancashmanan & Selinker, 2001).

Error Analysis

The term 'error' has been used as a general umbrella term for "any deviation which may include both 'error' (ignorance of language system) and 'mistake' in performance" (James, 1998, p. 78). Corder (1967) first introduces the error-mistake distinction into modern debate. Based on Chomsky's distinction, Corder (1967) regards errors as failures in competence and mistakes failures in performance. Crystal's (1980) work defines 'error' from the perspective of psycholinguistics as "mistake in spontaneous speech or writing attributable to a malfunctioning of the neuromuscular commands of the brain" (as cited in James 1998, p. 79). Edge (1989) makes the point that 'mistake' is the cover term for all ways of being wrong in foreign language learning and errors cannot be corrected by students even after the wrongness have been spotted. To James (1998), errors are an instance of language "that is unintentionally deviant and is not self-corrigible by its author", but a mistake can be "either intentionally or unintentionally deviant or self-corrigible" (p. 78). In short, there still seems no clear-cut underpinning of 'error' and 'mistake'. Regardless of the remaining ambiguity, a number of classificatory systems have been generated for error analysis (EA). From the practical perspective, error analysis can guide the remedial action to correct errors foreign/second language learners commit (Corder, 1981).

Upon error counting, Lennon (1991) argues that the repeated lexical errors should not be counted, but it's not the case when two lexical replicas represent different conceptions. However, "the more complex and contentious cases involving grammar error repeats" are left unattended; therefore, James (1998) proposes four instruments each restricted to one level corresponding to this potential deficiency (p. 117):

1. GRARSP: the Grammar Assessment Remediation and Sampling Procedure.
2. PROPH: the Profile in Phonology, categorizing the segmental features of phonetically pathological speech.
3. PROP: the Prosody Profile, for analysis of super segmental features of speech-especially intonation.
4. PRISM: the Profile in Semantics

Among the above four instruments GRARSP and PROPH can be considered for the analysis of foreign or L2 learners' errors.

Research Questions

Employing SLA theories from the large body of literature, the present study attempts to answer the following questions:

1) From the perspective of cognitive-psychological process, how does the nature of the subjects' second language input differ?
2) What are the different learning strategies they have adopted?
3) What are their interlanguages like for the time being?
4) What types of errors they often make, particularly in speaking and writing?

Method

This study uses a convenience sample. The author has known the four participants for over 2 years and constantly seen they perform in English in varied occasions. However, she would interpret the raw data in an objective manner. The focus group interview was verbatim transcribed and put for a content analysis. In addition, a piece of written work was analysed to supplement. On the other hand, to keep consistent with the theoretical assumptions of SLA, all the English learners in the study are taken as ESL (English as a Second Language) learners, although their language context may vary from EFL (English as a Foreign Language) to ESL at times. A summary is made in the appendix in terms of the similarities and differences regarding these ESL learners' English learning experience.

The Sample

The four participants, ranging from 24 years old to 39, all began their English learning from Secondary One in mainland China. To keep the privacy, they were in turn pseudonamed Amy, Helen, Terry, and David. Helen and Amy have been in their doctorate study for two academic years; Terry and David just finished their master's programmes to date. Amy and Terry received their early education in urban areas where audio-visual learning resources could be easily accessed. Conversely, Helen and David were originally from rural areas in the poverty-stricken North-western China where learning resources from outside were rarely available. The effort they could put on English learning varied according to their backgrounds. However, all of them passed the College English Test Band 4 at college, and TOEFL or IELTS before applying for further study in Hong Kong. To them English is useful to different extent, and they are not likely to give it up in their later life.

Analysis and Discussion

The Nature of Second Language Input and the Learning Strategies

To identify the nature of the subjects' L2 input, what has to be investigated is the nature of the instruction they received and the learning strategies they have employed. As reported, when in secondary schools, what they all faced on a daily basis was cramming of grammar and quizzes and tests arranged by English teachers who were also under great pressure from the public examinations. This was taken for granted and nobody complained. There were teachers who attempted to make variations by employing new teaching approaches instead of explaining the 'rules' on the textbooks all the time. Nevertheless, they soon went back to where they were from. As found, under the constraints of time and size of classes, leaving students to discover the 'rules' by their own was such a luxury that no one could afford.

Additionally, the two rural students relied on explicit learning in class, unlike the two from cities who could find some listening or reading materials after class. In this case, implicit learning took place unconsciously. This question is till asked today whether it is this kind of explicit instruction that in general leads to English learners' failure in China. However, Amy, one of the two implicit learners found the extra learning aids boring and soon left them aside. Terry, the other implicit learner, was obsessed with it and often listened for a while before going to sleep. He claimed this as the reason why his listening competence had been superior to speaking ever since. Although a non-English major, his reading and writing proficiency levels excel. He reported,

> *There was a teacher in my secondary school years who would always introduce some background knowledge, like customs overseas, before coming to the lecturing with grammar from textbooks like most teachers did and still do. I was fond of his style very much.*

On the whole, Terry has been enjoying his learning since early years and has never regarded any English examinations as challenges at all. However, to what extent Terry's success today can be attributed to these implicit learning experiences remains unknown. However, Ellis' (2006) investigation on explicit and implicit learning asserts that "explicit knowledge was a predictor of overall proficiency scores on tests of listening, speaking, reading and writing" (as cited in Dekeyser, 2009, p. 122).

The participants all continued to learn English after finishing their college education, in which time, the gap between explicit and implicit learning context has diminished. In some sense, the non-stop learning is for their career development. Additionally, they all found it a pleasure to watch some English movies in their leisure time. Reading English novels is a good pastime for the two females. For them, attending lectures in English is a boon from Hong Kong, but a challenge to David. Although having not taken any English tests in the past one or two years, they all believe their English proficiency has been greatly enhanced. However, as busy adult learners, they constantly and intentionally try to find out the concepts and rules in which English the language is embedded (Hulstijn, 2005).

Learning Strategies

This study examines not only the "the tutored learning of English in a formal setting" but also "the non-tutored acquisition of English in a non-formal setting" on account of the four English learners from Chinese background (Alptekin, 2007, p. 1).

Learners at all levels use strategies. Usually, "more proficient language learners use a wider range in more situations", and they value the quality rather than the quantity of the strategies (Latif, n.d., p. 22). According to Oxford's (1990) synthesis, the current respondents have much in common in terms of cultural background and motivation. They all have the history of rote memorization for learning, as is predominating among Asian students. Amy reported that she memorized almost all the texts in secondary years. David did some and found it was good to develop one's language feel. Helen and Terry were involved with this more or less. All the four were motivated to learn English in their school years, during which English was the key subject and they were required to attend various tests before successfully completing their compulsory education. At the same time, they all tried to find time to attend English Corners to practice their English in their college years. As a non-English major, when at college, David used to spend nearly 2/3 of his time learning English, but did not pass the National College English Band 4 test until the fourth year. While Terry, the higher flier, aimed at TOEFL and GRE and planned to further his study in the USA. At times they stop learning English for a while but never really give it up.

Regarding Oxford's (1990) taxonomy, they all adopted memory strategies, though to different extent, and cognitive strategies in their early education. David used to memorize vocabulary from an Oxford English dictionary, but stopped hopelessly after finishing the words starting with "a". Similarly Helen did LI Yang Crazy English for one month before starting her teaching job in 2001.

> *It's kind of pure rote memorization and you have to shout the exact expressions out as loudly as possible. Sometimes they are only short every day greetings, but sometimes they are paragraphs. You are expected to finish them in one go. It's very monotonous actually, but finally I did find I was not afraid of speaking up and got quite an American accent.*

Comparatively speaking, Amy, Helen and Terry now are more inclined to social strategies. They tend to learn from the native speakers especially from email exchanges and making conversations whenever possible. David uses the affective strategies when feeling frustrated.

It is the same with Helen as well, who used to be very anxious that her British accent had been "lost".

On the whole, Amy and David are more likely to be analytic-style learners who prefer to rule-learning by partitioning words and phrases for contrastive analysis; while Helen and Terry are global learners who tend to use strategies like guessing, scanning and predicting to find meaning (Oxford, 1990).

Interlanguage Systems

Information about competence of one's interlanguage can only be derived indirectly through systematic comparison of the L2 interlanguage performance data and the performance of native speakers (Lancashmanan & Selinker, 2001). Considering the convenience sampling, instruments like the grammaticality judgement task or the sentence matching task are not used. Instead, the subjects evaluated their own current proficiency. Having been getting along with them for over two years, the author generally knows their learning experience and the status-quo of their attainment.

If assuming an absolute non-user is placed at 0 on a scale, while one full native-like learner is at 10, the subjects marked themselves differently. Amy assumed her currently standing is approximately at 6. As claimed, she intentionally imitates native speakers' expressions when communicating via emails at work and writing up her doctorate assignments. Always encouraged by her academic adviser to write native-like, she thinks it is impossible for her, an adult ESL learner. The advisor provides reading tasks regularly for her doctorate work, which is beyond her current understanding. In this way she is pushed to move towards the target language. Terry cordially put himself at 5, being less confident at speaking. Helen reluctantly took 7, maintaining that there is a big gap to fill in terms of writing and speaking. David did not respond to this, but was more confident with his reading and writing. This is the case with a large number of English learners in China.

None of them believes there are problems in face-to-face conversations with native English speakers. To Amy, it is because they seldom come to abstract and difficulty questions when talking face-to-face. On the other hand, the listeners can easily catch what she meant to say in the context, and body language helps meanwhile. She even intentionally makes conversations with native speakers by asking about particular words or simple questions. Terry has made quite a few English-speaking friends, with whom he spends his leisure time sometimes. Having not really practiced speaking, David occasionally meets foreigners in the street who say hello to him, and he awkwardly responds with a "hello". Helen finds her communication with English speakers generally pleasant. However, there are once or twice the listeners told her "I don't know what you are talking about" before she continued, though she is just talking about regular basics. She regards herself as a very sensitive language learner, and responses like this let her down immediately. She can hardly say anything properly once being treated in such a manner.

Intrinsically associated with SLA research is the concept of fossilization, which is regarded as a fundamental phenomenon of all second language learners but not just adult learners (Selinker, 1972). The fossilization may take place at any developmental stage of a learner. Helen used to worry a lot that her English, particularly in terms of speaking, had been deteriorating drastically since leaving her teaching position in China three years ago. Although exposed to English more than often while working in Hong Kong, she seldom speaks. Not until she is confirmed that reading is also an effective means to enhance one's L2 learning, did she take a glance back and find her writing and speaking proficiency has been improved indeed. Therefore, the fossilization has yet happened in her case-. However, she wonders if the fossilisation is bound to happen to learners sooner or later, whether they should continue to learn a second language after that. Amy is on the way up, seeing her progress from the successive assignments. Terry feels he is learning something new every day. By contrast, David expresses the concern that he may never make breakthroughs at speaking.

Error Analysis

Considering the remaining lack of agreement on the definition of 'error' amongst linguists, the present study will use error as a cover term for all ways of being wrong in English learning (Edge, 1989). As claimed, the respondents are still baffled by features of their mother language to a certain degree. Helen, presumably the most proficient L2 learner of the four, admitted that, even now she still commits simple errors like constantly ignoring the definite article 'the', the singular 's' for the third person in simple present, and the agreement of subjects and objects mostly in speaking. These are also the case with the other three respondents, and perhaps with an overwhelming majority of ESL learners originated from the Chinese context. Especially added by Amy is the mixed use of 'he' and 'she'. When put to writing, this seldom happens, however. David pointed out his overuse of some simple words like "so" and "very" and underuse of some difficult words and structures. This is because he lacks confidence and intends to prevent too many errors from showing up. Helen supplemented that it is her intention to avoid misuse that results in not using some very useful expressions.

In addition to the reported errors, Helen kindly provided a piece of written work which was intensively corrected by a native speaker. As regards this written work, this study will stop at finding out frequent errors and will not move forward to do the analysis. When counting errors, the distinction between error-token and error-type is employed to separate incidental from systematic errors: the former is "confined to particular 'tokens' rather than generalization to the type of error it represents" (Prabhu, 1987, p. 62).

It's found that in the around 1200-word item-writing work, Helen ignored the definite article "the" before abstract nouns for 5 times, which she did not assume wrong till then. After that, she intentionally put "the"s in front of all abstract nouns just in case, which certainly made it even worse. Similarly, there were 4 omissions of the plural "s" after abstract nouns which she had not realized until then. There are 6 errors with the use of prepositions. On account of error-type and error-token distinction, there are respectively 4, 4 and 3 type errors with the above-mentioned three categories. Above the word level, she clearly prefers the kind of flowery and over-wording expressions. This was pointed out by the supervisor as an unpleasant style of writing of hers as well as most non-native speakers. What is more, it seems that she was obsessed with long sentences, most of which were cut short by the supervisor. Last but not least, there are quite some expressions that do not read like English but rather resemble the work of machine translation, as the supervisor claimed. She was most grateful for the word-by-word correction, but was so disappointed to herself that she dare not write anything in English for quite a long time. Except for one misspelling, these errors all account for systematic errors.

Conclusion

To sum up, the current study collected data from self-report focus group interview and summarized across the participants' statements. Through inquiries into these data, it displays to the readers some indications about, and shed light on, language acquisition of Chinese ESL learners currently studying in Hong Kong. Advanced into the terrain of SLA, it further answers some specific questions with descriptive information and theoretical exploitation. However, for case studies like these there is little ground for scientific generalization, let alone to large populations. This does not mean it will not provide any inference to studies on second language acquisition or implications to educational practitioners and policy makers. Indeed, Chinese EFL learners in Greater China area have a lot in common, e.g., the root learning tradition, the passive learning style. What differ mostly are about the access to learning materials and resources and the opportunities for overseas exchanges. In spite of Chinese the same mother language, their individual differences in terms of learning strategies, interlanguage status, incidental and systematic errors, etc., should also be addressed during the education process. In this sense, the current study, not meant to illuminate the path, adds to the vast knowledge base some insights into Chinese ESL learners' learning experience. It would be interesting to compare the specific patterns of Chinese learners to learners from the other races and origins. Comparative studies from the macro scope would promote the development of English language education internationally.

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Appendix *Similarities and differences regarding EFL learning experience*

	Amy	Helen	Terry	David
Age	39	31	23	33
Current Education Status	EdD student	EdD student	MA student	MA student
Current English Level	CET 6	ELITS	TOFEL	CET 4
Education Place	Mianyang, Sichuan, (a southwestern city)	A northwestern rural village and a town later on	Beijing	A northwestern rural village and a town later on
English Access outside of school (before entering college)	Audio-visual learning resources, reading materials, textbooks	Textbooks	Audio-visual learning resources, reading materials, newspapers, magazines, textbooks	Textbooks
Proficiency Level (self-assessment: 0-10 from low to high)	Above average (6)	Proficient (7)	Average (5)	Below average (not responded)
Communication Ability (in both speaking and written form)	Intentionally imitates native speakers' expressions when communicating via emails at work and writing up her doctorate assignments	Still feel a big gap to fill in terms of writing and speaking	More confident with reading and writing; made quite a few English-speaking friends	Having not really practiced speaking
Learning Strategy	Social strategy	Social and affective strategies (rote learning to a lesser degree; a sensitive language learner)	Social strategy (rote learning to some extent)	Affective strategy (rote learning to a large extent)
Learning Style	Analytic	Guessing, scanning and predicting to find meanings	Guessing, scanning and predicting to find meanings	Analytic, grammar-learning
Current Status	On the way up, seeing the progress from the	Used to worry a lot that her English, particularly in	Learning something new every day	Has the concern that breakthroughs may never be

	successive assignments	terms of speaking; however, find her writing and speaking proficiency improved in fact		made at speaking
Errors (often committed in speaking)	Mixed use of ‘he’ and ‘she’	Constant ignorance of the definite article ‘the’, the singular ‘s’, and the agreement of subjects and objects		Overuse of some simple words like “so” and “very” and underuse of some difficult words and structures

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A comparison of student perceptions towards learning English versus L1 language in an international EMI school in Hong Kong

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Abstract
First language (L1) Chinese parents and students in Hong Kong consider English language proficiency beneficial for future academia and careers. The number of L1 Chinese students attending English Medium of Instruction (EMI) international schools has, therefore, continued to rise in recent decades. Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) is highly valued in Hong Kong. This paper reports questionnaire data of primary school students attending an EMI international school in Hong Kong and compares their perceptions towards learning English as their first language (L1) or second language (L2). Results indicate that both age groups of L1 and L2 students value English, but that many older L1 Chinese (Cantonese or Mandarin) students consider being better at reading in English than in their L1 language. The discussion highlights possible detrimental effects on maintaining L1 competence when educated in an L2 environment.

Keywords: English language proficiency; vocabulary; Hong Kong; international schools; student perceptions; critical age theories

Introduction

Hong Kong education and students

In the mid-1950s, the number of students enrolled in Anglo-Chinese (later renamed English Medium) Hong Kong secondary schools outnumbered those attending Chinese middle schools (Tung, Lam & Tsang, 1997). Several decades later, the Education Commission reported and recommended Chinese should become the medium of instruction (MOI) in government and government-subsidized secondary schools (Tsui, 2008). Chinese considered being Cantonese for the spoken form and Modern Standard Chinese for the written form (Tsui, 2008). Previous to the handover in mid-1997, approximately 90% of local primary schools were Chinese medium of instruction (CMI) (Bacon-Shone & Bolton, 2008). In direct comparison, 94% of secondary school students were studying in EMI and 6% in CMI schools (Tsui, 2008). The Hong Kong education system has been described as "highly selective and competitive" (Poon & Wong, 2008, p. 35) and that existing social values considered EMI schools to be superior to CMI schools with good English leading to a successful career (Poon & Wong, 2008).

Fearing the possible implications of communist rule after the handover of Hong Kong to the People's Republic of China (PRC), it has been reported that approximately 10% of local parents chose to emigrate to English-speaking countries (Li, 2002) and on their return to

Hong Kong for continuity made the decision for their children to continue their education in English at an international school (Bray & Yamato, 2003). It has been pointed out that in the late 1980s and early 1990s there were a number of international schools in Hong Kong catering for children who were returning from abroad and had inadequate competence in Chinese to be educated in the local system (Yamato, 2003). Consequently, since the handover in 1997, there has been a rise in the number of local Hong Kong students attending international schools (Bray & Yamato, 2003; Ng, 2012). Ng (2012) cites 2011 statistics of the Hong Kong Education Bureau that between 1998 and 2008, international school numbers grew by 21.4%. In 2010, the total number of Hong Kong students studying in primary and secondary international schools was 4.25%, equating to 31,860 places (a rise from 2.53% in 1998).

Forse (2010) has argued that many Hong Kong Chinese parents are willing to forsake their child being educated in the local system using the lingua franca of Cantonese with Mandarin lessons, for an international education where Mandarin is possibly taught at a lower level than local schools, but with high-quality English education. Bilingual and dual-language programmes offered by international schools in Hong Kong are reported to be of much appeal to its society (Yamato, 2003). Schools offer support for L2 English students in the form of English as a foreign language (EFL) sessions, synonymously termed as English as an additional language (EAL) or English as a second language (ESL). It is common for teachers to have an additional TEFL qualification to adequately support L2 English students.

The needs and inspirations of Hong Kong parents who made the decision to send their children to primary and secondary international schools, as opposed to local Hong Kong schools were investigated by Ng (2012). The primary reasons cited were because the curricula offer inspiring, motivating, multinational, and multicultural learning experiences, not taught in the rigid teaching style of the local system.

Statistics have indicated in Hong Kong an increase from 1.12% in 1961 to 2.80% in 2006 in English being used as a primary language; and as an additional language, an increase from 29.4% in 1991 to 41.9% in 2006 (Poon, 2010). Poon (2010, p. 51) commented “people below the age of 40 brought up in Hong Kong should all be able to speak English with some degree of proficiency”. English is considered in Hong Kong society to be an important language in which to be able to communicate. This view is held by the business sector (Evans, 2010) and local L1 Cantonese speaking parents. Undergraduates surveyed by Lai (2012) similarly considered English to be the most beneficial language out of Cantonese, Mandarin and English for better career opportunities in the 21st century.

English vocabulary learning by L1 Cantonese undergraduates was investigated by Fan (2003). They were asked to complete a questionnaire and vocabulary test that used a word-definition matching format, similar to the Word Levels Test (Nation, 2008). The study found Hong Kong students do not consider repetition strategies to be useful in learning English as an L2. Fan (2003) commented guessing strategies were used most often with grouping and association strategies seldom used. The most English vocabulary proficient students in Fan’s study reported using various strategies (for example guessing, dictionaries and known words) more often than the less proficient students. Dictionaries were perceived as very useful by all students and many were reported to read stories, newspapers, and magazines outside class to increase their English vocabulary.

L1 and L2 critical age-related learning theories

The “critical period position” (Montrul, 2008), synonymous with the “sensitive period” (Herschensohn, 2013) is said to be the area L2 researchers are most divided upon (Singleton, 2003). Unlike L2 learning, Ioup (2005) proposed with regard to mother tongue and L1 learning, most researchers are in agreement a critical period exists. Recent research is suggesting a maturationally sensitive period exists for second language acquisition (L2A); that the offset decline begins at around four years old and a steeper decline occurs during the teenage years (Herschensohn, 2013). L2 learners have been shown to decline in ability with increasing age of onset of acquisition (AoA) and a reason why scholars tend to claim a critical period in L2A exists post-puberty (Herschensohn, 2013).

Target language exposure, with or without formal instruction, has been argued as an important consideration when researching the effect of age in L2A (Cenoz, 2003). Cenoz (2003) investigated students for whom English is taught as a third language (L3) in the Basque Country in Northern Spain. Analyses indicated on the majority of the measures, the secondary school student’s scores were higher than their younger counterparts. Cenoz (2003) reported possible explanations for the results were related to cognitive maturity and higher developed strategies in test-taking. Early English Language Teaching (EELT) and its impact on L1 and L2 development of first and second grade students in Dutch primary education was reported in one study (Goorhuis-Brouwer & de Bot, 2010). Goorhuis-Brouwer and de Bot (2010) concluded early exposure to English a good idea and that EELT had no negative impact on L1 or L2 Dutch language development.

Given the importance to learning English proposed by Hong Kong parents (Forse, 2010), this study set out to investigate L2 students’ perceptions towards learning English in an EMI school. Based on critical age theory (Herschensohn, 2013) and potential age-related psychological factors towards L2 acquisition (Cenoz, 2003), consideration was given to two age groups to review whether student perceptions varied according to age.

Following involvement in a five week intervention program on teaching reading using two alternative approaches with fiction or non-fiction texts (see Sorrell, 2013 for a detailed review of the intervention program), the students were asked to respond to a series of questions related to their perceptions about learning English. Each question sought to glean similarities or differences between the two age groups of Year 2 and Year 6 students in regards to their enjoyment in reading in English; learning new vocabulary; vocabulary learning strategies used; and their perceptions of the importance of learning English.

Methodology

Focus school environment

A single school case study was selected as a representative local international primary school catering for students whose parents wanted them to study in English, as opposed to the local language of Cantonese. It was a tuition fee-paying, private school in the New Territories of Hong Kong. Approximately 400 students were enrolled at the school. There were two classes in each year group ranging from pre-nursery (aged 2-3 years) to Year 6 (aged 10-11 years), with a maximum of 25 students in each class. Lower year group classes (pre-nursery to Year 3) had a dedicated full-time assistant teacher for each class and older year group classes (Years 4, 5 & 6) shared one assistant teacher between them.

The majority of the students attending the school were L1 Cantonese speakers and there were 31 nationalities represented in the student population. The MOI was English. Consequently, only a small number of students had English as their L1. Mandarin was offered as an additional language taught in daily lessons of approximately 40 minutes. There was EFL support at the school for L2 English students.

Sample

A convenience sample (DeKeyser, 2013) of students was identified from a lower grade (Year 2) and a higher grade (Year 6). Permission was granted by the senior management team to contact parents regarding their child's consent to participate. Letters were sent to parents of all non-English background students within these year groups. A total of 57 parents gave their consent for their students' participation. The final number of L2 English students involved in this research was 31 (Year 2, *n*=17; Year 6, *n*=14). L1 backgrounds across the two year groups were: Cantonese (*n*=25); Mandarin (*n*=2); Dutch (*n*=2); and Spanish (*n*=2). The research followed ethical guidelines established by the university.

Research Design

A questionnaire was based on the Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire used in Fan (2003) and the work of Ma and Kelly (2009). Care was taken in layout and design to make it easy for the students to read (Olsen, 2012). There was a mix of open and closed questions to obtain responses (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Closed questions (yes/no) required selection from a list (e.g. what coping strategy (or strategies) do you use with unknown words?); if their most appropriate answer was not given, 'other (please specify)' was included. Open-ended questions followed each one of these where students were asked to expand and justify their choice (e.g. why do you like reading your chosen type of book most?).

The questions aimed to explore student learning strategies when encountering difficulties learning new English vocabulary (Cheung, Randall & Tam, 2005; Nation, 2008) and issues of motivation and enjoyment in learning English (Dörnyei, 2001). The questions also addressed some of the issues raised in published research studies on the importance attached to being able to communicate in English (Lai, 2012).

Data Analyses

Open-ended question responses were coded for themes or categories for subsequent analyses. Olsen (2012, p. 46) described coding as "making a database of connections between various terms and data items selected from among the whole basket of evidence". The terms 'concepts', 'codes' and 'categories' are said to mean the same or similar things (Birks & Mills, 2011, p. 89). Using the approach of inductive analysis, responses were read several times to identify categories frequently appearing in the raw data (Thomas, 2003). For each question, categories were colour-coded and revised and sub-categories developed.

Validity and reliability

Questionnaires can raise validity and reliability issues. These concern how far respondents can be said to complete correctly with accuracy and honesty (Cohen et al., 2007). The question type will also affect the outcome. It has been argued that open questions, which are skilfully composed, "are high on validity because they get comprehensive answers in respondents' own words, but are lower in reliability because different interviewers might get different answers" (Guthrie, 2010, p. 130). In contrast, closed questions were considered by Guthrie (2010, p. 131) to be "less valid than open-ended questions because the choices might be restrictive, however, they are more reliable because the form of the question and answers is set, so research is more replicable. To increase validity, fixed choice response scales often include the category 'other' and add open-ended probe questions seeking further explanation, often with a simple 'why'". This was adopted in the development of the questionnaires used in this research.

Procedure

Questionnaires were distributed by class teachers to the identified students. A covering letter was sent to parents detailing the aims of the questionnaire and completion dates. In addition, class teachers were asked for their assistance in reminding the students to complete the questionnaire. Additional copies were given out to the students if they mislaid their original copy. The response rate was 100%.

Results

Similarities between the year groups with regard to enjoyment in reading in English

Three categories of *enjoyment, language* and *learning new vocabulary and spellings* emerged from the data regarding students' perceived enjoyment in reading in English. For the category of *enjoyment* four sub-categories emerged and for *language* there were three. There were no sub categories for *learning new vocabulary and spellings.* All students replied 'Yes' to the question 'Do you enjoy reading English books?' Table 1 displays the reasons identified by students for their enjoyment in English.

Table 1 *Categories and sub categories for the question 'Do you like reading English books?'*

Categories	Sub categories	Year 2 students	Year 6 students
Enjoyment	Exciting/fun	4	NR
	Favourite activity	1	NR
	Interesting	1	2
	Imaginative thoughts or emotions	NR	1
Language	Better at reading in English than in Chinese	NR	6
	Easier to read in English than in other languages	4	4
	English medium of instruction (MOI) at school	2	2
Learning new vocabulary and spellings		5	4

Note. NR = No Responses

Enjoyment

For the category of *enjoyment* there were found to be four sub categories which focused on reading being *exciting/fun;* a *favourite activity;* providing opportunities for *imaginative thoughts or emotions;* and *interesting*. For the Year 2 students, the most commonly expressed sub category was that it was *exciting/fun*. In contrast, none of the Year 6 students commented reading was either exciting or fun. Comments made as to why the younger students found reading exciting or fun (spellings unchanged for all quotes) include: "Yes because I find storys exciting" (L1 English); and "I ansewed yes because I like reading fun stories" (L1 English). The second most common sub categories expressed by the Year 2 students were that English was their *favourite activity* and it was *interesting*.

In contrast, *imaginative thoughts/emotions* and *interesting* were the two most commonly expressed sub categories found for the Year 6 students. One remark as to why the older students believed reading in English prompted their imagination or were of interest include: "I like reading because it creates a picture in your mind and you don't see it so you have to create it" (L1 English).

Language

Three sub categories were found for the category of *language.* These focused on the students considering they were *better at reading in English than in Chinese*; that it was *easier to read in English than in other languages*; and that the school was *English medium of instruction.* English *being easier to read in than other languages* was the most commonly expressed sub category for the Year 2 students. For the Year 6 students, being *better at reading in English than in Chinese* was their most commonly expressed sub categor*y*. The younger students' comments include: "Because it is more eaiser to understand to me" (L1 Cantonese); "I think the books in English are easier to read" (L1 Cantonese); and "English is eisiar for me to read than in other languages" (L1 Cantonese). Comments made by the older students include: "I like reading in English because it's easy for me and I understand most of the words in English" (L1 Cantonese) and "Because reading in other languages don't seem very interesting and reading in English is much more easier" (L1 Cantonese).

All Year 6 students who mentioned the words 'Chinese' or 'Cantonese' when discussing their enjoyment in reading were L1 Cantonese. Their responses clearly demonstrated the distinction they made between learning the two languages and their preference to reading books written in English. These students had been educated in an English MOI international school since at least Year 1 compared to a local Cantonese MOI school. The Year 6 students clarified these comments by saying: "I answered yes because I know how to read better in English than Cantonese"; "I like reading in English because think that the structure is better than Chinese"; and "I answered yes because I'm not good at reading Chinese". Conversely, for the younger students none of them commented they were better at reading in English than in Chinese.

For the sub category *English medium of instruction (MOI) at school,* remarks that were made by the Year 2 students include: "Because I always read english book at school" (L1 Mandarin); and for the Year 6 students include: "I enjoy reading in english because at school I read in english and my reading with chinese is bad" (L1 Cantonese).

Learning new vocabulary and spellings

No sub categories were found for the category of *learning new vocabulary and spellings*. There were a number of students in both year groups who mentioned reading English books helps with their learning of new English vocabulary or improving their spellings. Comments made by the younger students include: "Because I like to learn more English words" (L1 Cantonese); and "I like to learn new words from books" (L1 Spanish).

For the Year 6 students, comments (spellings unchanged) include: "Because I improve every time and it helps me whith my spelling" (L1 Dutch); and "I enjoy reading in English because it is a chance for me to learn new vocabulary" (L1 English).

Similarities between year groups with regard to experiences learning new English vocabulary

There was even distribution between 'Yes' and 'No' in both year groups for the question 'Have you ever had any problems learning new words in English?' Three categories of *spellings*, *definitions and grammar,* and *pronunciation* emerged from the data with no sub-categories. Table 2 displays the categories in rank order.

Spellings were most commonly expressed for both year groups, however, for the younger students, definitions and grammar was also most commonly expressed and for the older students' pronunciation. With regard to spellings, one Year 2 student reflected (spellings unchanged): "I had troble spelling "because" untill I lernt a sentnse "big elyfants can alwas understand small elyfants" (L1 English). For definitions and grammar, one of the younger students remarked on having to learn so many new words at the same time: "Too many words at the same time and guess its meaning" (L1 Cantonese). One Year 6 student demonstrated a deep understanding of grammatical terminology saying: "I had some problems with grammar, which were putting the prepositions in the right place" (L1 Cantonese). With reference to pronunciation, one Year 2 student talked of the confusions she has with rhyming words: "I get confused with rhyming words because they sound almost the same" (L1 Cantonese). The same student remarked on her strategy when confused with rhyming words as: "I looked at the difference between the spellings".

Table 2 *Categories for the question 'Can you think of any problems that you have had learning new words in English?'*

Categories	Year 2 students	Year 6 students
Spellings	3	1
Definitions and grammar	5	NR
Pronunciation	2	2

Note. Some students who responded 'Yes' did not comment on the problems they have and/or strategies they use. NR = No Responses

The students were also asked to comment on coping strategies they use to overcome difficulties learning new words. Nine strategy choices were listed. The results are displayed in Table 3 in rank order.

Table 3 *Coping strategies used when encountering problems learning new words in English*

Coping strategies	Year 2 students	Year 6 students
Ask friends and/or family for help	13	13
Use an English dictionary	10	13
Break the word up into its prefix, root and suffix/sounding out	7	7
Write the word down many times (repetition)	9	2
Reading stories, newspapers, magazines outside of the classroom	6	7
Use particular Internet websites	5	5
Using picture cues to help remember the new word(s)	5	2
Use a dictionary in English and your first language	5	3
Think about the word in your first language (if not English)	1	3

Similarities were found between the two year groups. The most common strategy used by both the younger and older students was to *ask friends and/or family for help* and the second most common strategy used by both year groups was to *use an English dictionary*. In addition, for the younger students, *write the word down many times (repetition)* was the third most common strategy they used.

Similarities between year groups with regard to the importance of being able to communicate in English

Two categories of *careers and education,* and *popularity* emerged from the data regarding the importance students' perceived to the importance of being able to communicate in English. Table 4 displays the findings. For each category, sub categories are listed in rank order.

Table 4 *Categories and sub categories for students' perceptions of English communication*

Categories	Sub categories	Year 2 students	Year 6 students
Careers and education	Learning new things	3	1
	Increased future work opportunities	NR	4
	School/school grades	1	3
Popularity	Global language	9	11
	Family and friends	3	NR

Note. NR = No Responses

Careers and education

Three sub categories were found for the category of careers and education. These focused on *being able to learn new things, English increasing future work opportunities* and *school/school grades*. The most commonly expressed sub category for the younger students was *learning new things*. In contrast, none of the older students made such comments. For the older students, *increased future work opportunities* were most commonly expressed and in contrast, none of the younger students commented on their future work.

Comments made by the Year 2 students with regard to *learning new things* (punctuation unchanged) include: "I learn more things in english" (L1 Mandarin) and "I can know more things" (L1 English). The older student commented: "It is important to learn so you could live sucsesfuly" (L1 Cantonese).

With regard to future work opportunities, Year 6 students remarked: "Because if you're a Chinese person and you want to work in the US, you really have to learn English or you won't be able to understand what people are saying" (L1 Cantonese); "People need to know how to read because finding jobs include reading writing and speaking" (L1 Cantonese); "I think its important to communicate read and write, because you need it when you grow up and get a job" (L1 Cantonese); and "Because if you know english, you might get a better job" (L1 Cantonese).

Comments with regard to *school/school grades* were mentioned by students in both year groups. One younger student (spellings unchanged) said: "Because our school speaks Engalish. If we don't know we can't communicate with others" (L1 English). The older students comments (grammar unchanged) include: "Because when you grow up it will help you with my grades and when I go to other countries I can speak in English so, they might understand me better then speaking in Chinese" (L1 Cantonese).

Popularity

For the sub category of popularity, two sub categories were found focusing the opinion English is a *global language* and being able to communicate with *family and friends*. English being a *global language* was most commonly expressed for both year groups.

For the younger students, comments made with regard to English being a *global language* (spellings and punctuation unchanged) include: "English is a universal language and almost everyone uses it in some way or another" (L1 Cantonese); "Because I go to some country like America and people ask something like 'where the magazine?' and I don't know how to explain to them" (L1 Cantonese); "Because some people only understand English" (L1

Cantonese); "yes because most people use english as a foreign language" (L1 English); and "I anserd yes because most countries (west) speak English" (L1 Spanish).

For the older students, their remarks (spellings and punctuation unchanged) include: "English is very important and lots of country uses English but different accents" (L1 Cantonese); "Because it is one of the most widly spoken languig's" (L1 English); "I answered yes because most of the world speak at least a little bit of English" (L1 English); "I answered yes because you are able to talk to most people in the world if you can speak English" (L1 English); and "Because English is a langwige almost everyone understands" (L1 Dutch).

For communicating with *family and friends*, comments made by the younger students (spellings and grammar unchanged) include: "I anserd yes because need to speak to my nanny and grandad and family in England" (L1 English); and "Because I can communicate with my friends" (L1 Spanish).

Discussion

This article reports the findings of a study undertaken in an international primary school in Hong Kong. The 31 students involved were from a variety of L1 backgrounds, with the majority having a Chinese dialect as their L1. English was the MOI of the school and Mandarin was taught daily as an additional language.

Value of English language proficiency

One of the main findings was the value L1 Cantonese and Mandarin students attached towards English language proficiency and their future academic aspirations and careers, even though they were still only in primary school. None of the L1 Dutch or Spanish students made such comments.

In response to the question asking if they felt it important to be able to communicate in English, L1 Cantonese students made reference to learning English as a means of improving their school grades or work opportunities. Similar to previous findings (e.g. Fryer, 2009; Lai, 2012; Tung et al., 2007) it was the older students who were more focused on this. Lee, Mo, Lee and Sung (2013) also reported in their study that Korean English speakers were receptive to English being of importance for communication. While English language proficiency is considered an important reason for academic achievement, personal factors such as motivation (Kim, 2014; Phakiti, Hirsh & Woodrow, 2013) must be considered further when expecting students to be involved in learning English as an L2. Kim (2014) found, for example, that EFL students taking a college English speaking course in Korea had higher extrinsic motivation than intrinsic motivation for speaking English.

Critical age differences

Critical periods in L2A have been described as a "contentious issue" that many L2 researchers are divided upon (e.g. DeKeyser & Juffs, 2005). DeKeyser and Juffs (2005) suggested post-puberty L2 learners do not progress as far as L1 learners, but issues of age-proficiency function and cognitive interpretation continue to be questioned by L2 researchers. L2 acquisition researchers have claimed the offset decline begins at around four years old with a steeper decline during the teenage years (Herschensohn, 2013). Cenoz (2003), however, found secondary students scored higher than younger students on assessments, but explained his findings may be related to cognitive maturity or higher developed test-taking strategies. Such research demonstrates the divided opinion that exists between L2 acquisition researchers towards critical age periods.

The students in this study were between the ages of six and 10 years old and, therefore, between the ages discussed by Herschensohn (2013). The older L1 Chinese students believed they were better at reading in their L2 of English than in their L1 and, therefore, support the findings of Cenoz (2003). Both younger and older L2 English students remarked English was easier to learn, which concurs with Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (2003) and Singleton and Ryan (2004). The older students, however, reporting that they were better at reading in their L2 rather than their L1 is contrary to Herschensohn (2013).

Differences were found between the younger and older students regarding their reasons for enjoyment in reading English books. The younger students (L1 Cantonese and L1 Dutch) made comments including "exciting" and "fun" and inflected forms (Read 2000) such as "excitement" or "funny". None of the older students used such vocabulary. In comparison, the older L1 Cantonese students compared their reading in English to Chinese, commenting they were better at reading in English. The younger students' comments could be considered more emotive than the older students and be attributed to vocabulary used by younger aged children. Whereas the older students' conveyed a sense of responsibility to their future academic and career opportunities/advancement, particularly the value they attached to being able to communicate in English. It was found, however, that both younger and older L1 Cantonese students perceived that English was an easier language to read in compared to other languages.

Students in this study identified strategies they use to cope with learning new English words. The most common strategy used for both year groups was to ask for help. This is contrary to Ardasheva and Tretter (2012) and Jurkovič (2010). Ardasheva and Tretter (2012), for example, found elementary, middle and high school students used 'social' strategies such as seeking help the third most frequent out of six categories, with metacognitive strategies the most common. This study also found both younger and older students prefer to use monolingual rather than bilingual dictionaries; similar to that reported by Lee and Oxford (2008) and Fan (2003) in their studies with university students. Laufer and Yano (2001) remarked university participants in their research with an L1 of Hebrew, Japanese or Mandarin, may not have consulted a dictionary in their daily reading due to an over-evaluation of their comprehension. In another study that evaluated university students in Japan, Prichard (2008) reported selective dictionary use may lead to an improvement in reading comprehension, as well as efficient vocabulary development. Breaking up words into its prefix, root and suffix or sounding out was the third most common strategy used by the students in both year groups, echoing Parsons and Lyddy's (2009) research that found students in the Republic of Ireland learning Irish similarly used a phonological decoding strategy to read unfamiliar items.

When learning new words in English, L1 Cantonese, Mandarin and Dutch students found that spelling caused them the most difficulty. Most remarked that they asked an adult for unknown words. Ma (2011) similarly found primary-aged learners in her study needed assistance when spelling new words in their weekly dictations. Dictionaries were a resource often used by both year groups to assist them in learning new English vocabulary, reiterating other research (Cheung, Ledesma & Fung, 2009; Fan, 2003; Lee & Oxford, 2008). Cheung et al. (2009) also found that due to a limited vocabulary, many L1 Chinese students ask teachers or consult dictionaries for assistance.

A distinction was made by the older L1 Cantonese students of their learning in English compared to Chinese, remarking English was an easier language for them to learn. It should be noted some students had been educated since nursery in an EMI international education environment and, therefore, never experienced schooling in their L1. These findings support the research of Tung et al. (2007) who concluded it was more advantageous for L1 Cantonese students to learn English in EMI, as opposed to a CMI School. This finding of Tung et al. (2007) and the opinions expressed by the Year 6 students do have implications, nonetheless, including the possible detrimental effect on L1 maintenance due to a preference for learning in the L2.

Conclusion

Due to the changes made to Hong Kong's EMI policy in the 1990s when the number of EMI schools was reduced and number of CMI schools increased (Bacon-Shone & Bolton, 2008) parental concerns were raised on the standards of English teaching. TEFL is highly valued in Hong Kong and international schools which offered EMI, thus, became an alternative form of private schooling for local residents who could afford the tuition fees. International schools are often seen as a more successful route to English medium and as a result, the number of L1 Cantonese speaking students educated in EMI international schools has steadily risen in recent years (Forse, 2010).

In studies reported in Lai (2012), students educated in local Government Hong Kong secondary schools were found to be positive towards learning both English and Mandarin. Conversely, this study undertaken in an international Hong Kong primary school context, found that older L1 Cantonese students were more negative towards learning Mandarin. The students reported that learning in Mandarin was more difficult and less enjoyable than learning in English. Such negativity raises the question of L1 Chinese students being educated within international EMI schools and the potential detrimental effects on their L1 competency. Such evidence warrants further investigation, including the views of parents and educators towards the possible effects on children's L1 when receiving an education in an L2 environment.

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The Validation of Horwitz's (1987) Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory to Survey Chinese Mainland College Students' Beliefs about Learning English as a Second Language

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Abstract

This study aimed at establishing, through reviewing and comparing, the construct validity of Horwitz's (1987) inventory surveying students' beliefs about second language learning (ESL BALLI) in the context of mainland China. The inventory was translated into Chinese, reviewed, and revised where necessary. Based on a convenience sample of 192 tertiary-level college students, the initial exploratory and subsequent confirmatory factor analyses proved that the four-factor inventory, with 15 items that survived rigorous statistical examination, has valid constructs and internal consistency. It is hoped that the robust factor analysis techniques would ensure the legitimacy of the adapted inventory, which will be used to examine the patterns of Chinese mainland college students' beliefs about learning English as a second language. A comparison between the group of Chinese learners and learners from other origins, i.e., the English native learners, will shed light on the path of English education worldwide, or in a greater extend, lead to the educational development internationally.

Introduction

The past few decades have witnessed a large number of studies using varied instruments to measure learners' beliefs about and attitudes towards language learning (see for example, Littlewood, 2001; Mori, 1999; Wen & Johnson, 1997). Horwitz's well-known (1987) inventory surveying students' beliefs about second language learning, which marks the beginning of systematic research on learners' beliefs, has been extensively used (Huang & Tsai, 2003; Kuntz, 1996; Mori, 1999; Park, 1997; Wu, 2008; Yang, 1999). However, learners' beliefs differ across different cultural and situational settings. A search of the literature found that most studies to date have not taken into account empirically the construct validity of the inventory being used before having it administered. When it comes to studies examining Chinese ESL learners' beliefs (see for example, Huang & Tsai, 2003), this is especially the case. This might be attributed to the researchers' lack of experience in empirical studies.

Instrument validation is a primary concern for quantitative studies that employ forced-choice items (Sakui & Gaies, 1999). There is little evidence that results of a study undertaken in one context can be generalized across different cultural groups (Mok & Lam, 2004). For the same reason, it's not surprising to find that most BALLI validation studies end up with different numbers of dimensions or different items under individual dimensions (Atlan, 1996; Kuntz, 1996; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006). When it comes to investigations conducted in Greater China Area, for example, Yang in her (1999) study identifies four dimensions, each including items from other dimensions as originally proposed by Horwitz (1987), thereby cross-loading of items. This is also the case with Wu's (2001) study with Hong Kong college students undertaking vocational education. This may be attributed to the complexity of the belief structure about language learning (Mori, 1999). In this sense, the current investigation is innovative by nature.

Notorious for its "lack of statistical backing as to the significance of selected variables", the BALLI inventory is further undermined due to its conceptualization derived from trainee teachers other than language learners (Mori, 1999, p. 381). Recent research conducted in Asian contexts may provide some implications for the current study (see for example, Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006; Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Wu, 2008; Yang, 1999). Nevertheless, the targeted group of Chinese mainland college students undertaking vocational education distinguishes itself from their counterparts in the Greater China area, and has not been focused on in research powered by inferential statistical explorations.

Research methods

Sample

The sample is composed of 192 tertiary-level college students receiving vocational education in Guangzhou, China. Among them, 80% are girls, 20% boys. They have learned English for no less than 6 years before entering college. Currently they are first-year or second-year students, having English classes regularly. None of them have lived or studied overseas.

Instrument

The instrument is Horwitz's (1987) inventory surveying ESL learners' beliefs about language learning. The inventory consists of 34 items, which were subjected to back translation and culturally adapted. Apart from 32 five-point Likert-type items with responses ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree", two of the items are multiple-choice questions with five options. As forced-choice items, they were coded in the same way. The few negatively-phrased items were reverse coded.

Analysis

This study, in a long term, will attempt to investigate Chinese mainland college students' beliefs about learning English as a second language. At the preliminary stage, the primary concern is to refine and validate, in terms of psychological properties of the BALLI scale, for the use with Chinese mainland ESL students. This study follows the conventional procedures to examine the construct validity of the inventory in current context. To make it explicit, first conducted is the basic data reduction technique, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), after that the reliabilities of the inventory with remaining items and of each of the identified factors are examined. Subsequently a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using varied software programs are performed to ascertain the structure of beliefs in the present study.

1. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA): to ensure dimensionality of the inventory

To "identify structure in data and generate hypotheses without imposing any restrictions", exploratory factor analysis was implemented by the use of SPSS software package (Albright & Park, 2009, p. 85). The EFA analysis kept the default Kaiser's criterion, i. e., the eigenvalue-greater-than-one principle, on account of the factors to be extracted. The principal component method with varimax rotation was adopted, assuming the normal distribution of the data (Flora & Curran, 2004).

The number of factors was left open, while the conceptual meaningfulness of each item and the face validity of the inventory were taken into account along the progression of the factor analyses. This, however, is not against the "data-driven" nature of EFA analysis. The deletion of items started from the right end of the rotated component matrix. Items with lowest factor loadings were always considered first. In this study a cut point value of 0.30 was used to judge the saliency of factor loadings (Flora & Curran, 2004). Negatively-loaded or cross-loaded items were also subjected to removal.

2. Internal consistency of the inventory and factors

After having established a discrete structure of the sampled students' beliefs, the reliability of learners' responses were empirically tested rather than simply assumed (Peacock, 2001; Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Xu, 2007). This is particularly true considering the fact that the reliabilities of the BALLI inventory are not high in many studies (see for example, Yang, 1999; Wu, 2008). Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) was computed to measure the extent to which the inventory with the remaining 15 items was reliable. In addition, a series of reliability tests were performed to ascertain whether each factor was underpinned by only one coherent dimension (Mok & Lam, 2004). It is worth noting that, "scales with more items or more varied samples will have larger Cronbach's coefficient alpha values without having more reliability" (Mok & Lam, 2004, p. 7).

3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA): to review and ensure the unidimensionality of the factors

If the hypothesized relations among the variables are confirmed, the data-driven results of the exploratory factor analysis will be theory-oriented (Floral & Curran, 2004). Software programs for CFA are multiple, the frequently recommended being LISREL and Mplus. Nevertheless in the current study CFA using SPSS 19 was first conducted to review the structure of the beliefs. The LISREL 8.7 and Mplus 6 computation results provided further evidence, to ascertain or deny the CFA findings from SPSS.

Results

Stage 1. Exploratory factor analysis

Despite Horwitz's predefined dimensions, factor pattern established in previous BALLI validation studies vary. With a Chinese sample the present study is innovative in nature. The principal factoring extraction, followed by varimax rotation, generated a 12- factor solution. This is perceivable as the inventory is not theoretically robust, and the supposed five dimensions are not statistically grounded. A sequence of exploratory factor analyses was performed against the preset principles. After systematic removal of 19 items, a distinct four-factor solution was yielded from the remaining 15 items consequently. This pattern, not exactly complying with the grouping of items as conceptualized by Horwitz's, is interpretable and independent of the belief dimensions in other studies (Atlan, 1996; Horwitz, 1999; Mori, 1999; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006; Sakui & Gaies, 1999).

Stage 2. Reliability Tests

The following analyses were based on the 15-item inventory and four factors respectively. The reliability for the overall scale is 0.728, acceptable but not rigorous. As reported in Table 1, the reliability coefficients of the first three factors range from 0.574 to 0.699, while that of the last factor is as low as 0.439. This might be resulted from the small number of items the last factor consists of. As specified by Cortina (1993), high internal consistency does not necessarily imply factorial unidimensionality (as cited in Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). It's not

worthwhile to breach the achieved factorial unidimensionality for the purpose of obtaining high internal consistency reliability. In short, to retain the coherence of each factor, there was no attempt to include a few more items under the factors. The two three-item factors produced less promising but more trustworthy reliabilities as far as this set of data was concerned. In contrast, to keep the face validity Item 20 under Factor 1 was kept in spite of the fact that the reliability of this factor will be increased when it is removed. Considering that the sampled students are all from homogenous backgrounds, the reliability could be improved should the sample include some respondents from heterogeneous backgrounds.
On the whole the internal consistency of the current inventory and factors are higher than most other studies undertaken in some other Chinese contexts (see for example, Yang, 1999; Wu, 2008).

Table 1 *Reliability Analysis of the 15-item Inventory*

Item No.	Item Means	Item Standard Deviation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Factor 1 - Q20	2.26	.806	.709
Factor 1 - Q26	2.18	.672	.674
Factor 1 - Q29	1.85	.726	.630
Factor 1 - Q31	1.73	.701	.619
Factor 1 - Q32	2.00	.841	.607
Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha Reliability = 0.699			
Factor 2 - Q5	2.48	.726	.477
Factor 2 - Q6	2.91	.610	.544
Factor 2 - Q13	2.53	.839	.514
Factor 2 - Q16	3.19	.735	.468
Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha Reliability = 0.574			
Factor 3 - Q7	1.76	.756	.387
Factor 3 - Q8	2.08	.759	.475
Factor 3 - Q18	1.62	.586	.579
Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha Reliability = 0.592			
Factor 4 - Q12	2.31	.974	.317
Factor 4 - Q24	2.55	.836	.361
Factor 4 - Q30	2.45	.848	.346
Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha Reliability = 0.439			

Note. Source of scale items from Horwitz (1987, p. 187)

Stage 3. CFA by SPSS 19

The SPSS 19 program was again used, to review pattern of beliefs derived from the remaining items. Confirmatory factor analyses on each of the 4 factors, following principal component method and Varimax rotation, asserted the unidimensionality of each factor. The results echoed Mori's (1999, p. 409) claim that "learner beliefs cannot be reduced to a single dimension but are composed of multiple, autonomous dimensions."

The KMO statistic of the CFA analysis with the shortform inventory is 0.704, marginally acceptable. The four factors explain over 51% of the total variance. Table 2 displays the four factors, the factor loadings and communalities of each item, and the eigenvalue of each factor and its rotation sums of squared loadings. It's evident that, apart from Item 20 that is weak in Factor 1, factor loadings of all the other items are above 0.50, and there's no Heywood case (McDonald, 1995), namely, dominating items with factor loadings greater than 0.9.

The 5 items loaded on Factor 1 are pertinent to beliefs about the nature and value of language learning; items loaded under Factor 2 are concerned with self-efficacy about language learning; Factor 3 addresses beliefs about learning strategies; and with another 3 items Factor 4 presents beliefs about language learning aptitude. The factors were renamed with descriptive titles accordingly. In line with previous empirical evidence, the present study would keep all the four factors to specify the postulated structure (Kunts, 1996; Wu, 2008).

Table 2 *Factor Loading from Confirmatory Factor Analysis using SPSS 19*

Factors & Items	Exploratory Factor Analysis Factor loadings	Communality
Factor 1: beliefs about the nature and value of language learning		
Q20	.349	.318
Q26	.647	.455
Q29	.685	.519
Q31	.666	.527
Q32	.757	.633
Eigenvalue = 3.371	Cronbach's a: 0.699	Proportion of Variance explained = 16.448%
Factor 2: self-efficacy about language learning		
Q5	.684	.662
Q6	.612	.454
Q13	.510	.511
Q16	.761	.586
Eigenvalue = 1.798	Cronbach's a: 0.574	Proportion of Variance explained = 12.192%
Factor 3: beliefs about learning strategies		
Q7	.685	.556
Q8	.785	.629
Q18	.525	.391
Eigenvalue = 1.338	Cronbach's a: 0.592	Proportion of Variance explained =11.769 %
Factor 4: beliefs about language learning aptitude		
Q12	.678	.539
Q24	.635	.432
Q30	.658	.475
Eigenvalue = 1.177	Cronbach's a: 0.439	Proportion of Variance explained = 10.822%

Note. Source of scale items from Horwitz (1987, p. 187)

Stage 4. CFA using LISREL 8.7

The validity of the 4-factor structure derived from the SPSS program was further examined using the CFA function of LISREL computer software packages (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993).

Given that the variables are all ordinal and are in the form of five-point responses, estimation of a polychoric correlation matrix other than polyserial correlation matrix was necessary (Flora & Curran, 2004). To be used as a weighting element in the estimation process, the Asymptotic Covariance Matrix of the sample variances and covariances were computed by using the SPSS 16 program (Mok & Lam, 2004).

All 15 remaining items were loaded onto a single latent variable to obtain the overall goodness of fit of the inventory. The model converged well, thus no modification was needed. There was no improper solution or offending estimates, such as Heywood case and over-large standard error. Among all the indices that provide information on the goodness of fit of the model to the data, the most commonly use Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) in the study is greater than the threshold value 0.9. It indicates adequate fit considering such a small sample size. The adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) is also very close to 0.90, while the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is above the benchmark, 0.90. More importantly, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is marginally greater than 0.05, suggesting that the model is reasonably, if not perfectly, fit. In addition, the chi-square statistic has a value of 133.79, with 84 degrees of freedom, indicating a good goodness of fit. Based on the hypothesized data structure and against the main criterions, it's ascertained that this CFA model fits the data well.

As presented in Table 3, the factor loadings of the variables under the four-factor structure range from 0.275 to 0.595. By contrast, the standardized estimates, as illustrated in Figure 1, fall in a more pleasant range. The four factors are correlated from low to medium level. The correlations between Factor 1 and all the other factors range from 0.456 to 0.550. Factor 2 is related the least with Factor 3 and Factor 4, reading 0.076 and 0.267 respectively. The correlation between Factor 3 and 4 is the second highest, next to that between Factor 3 and 1.

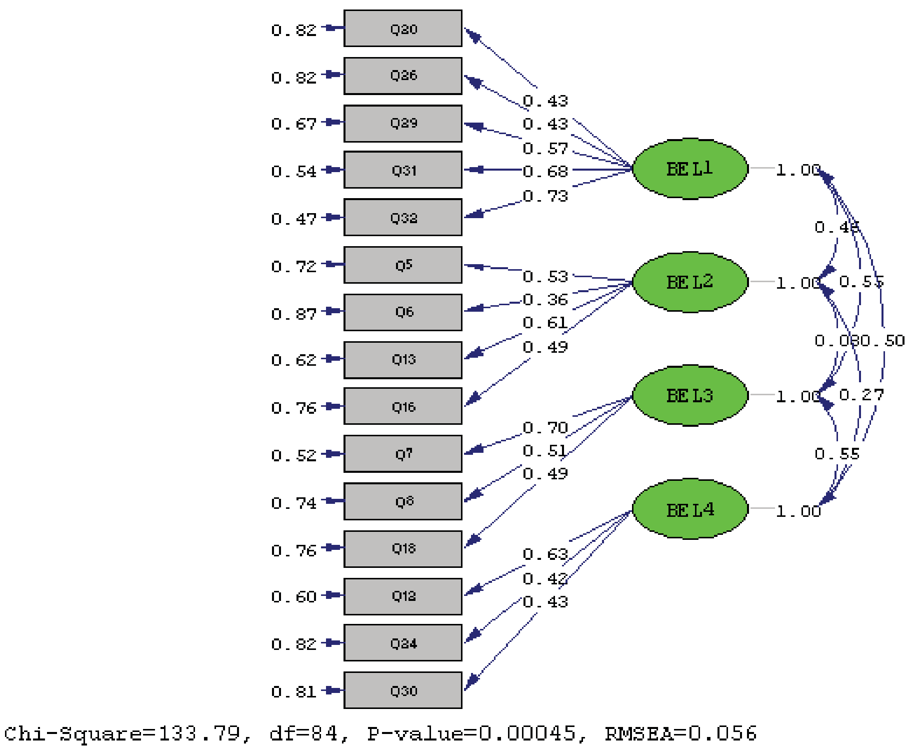

Figure 1 Path Diagram with Standard Estimates

Table 3 *Factor Loading from Confirmatory Factor Analysis using LISREL 8.7*

Items	Confirmatory factor analysis Factor loadings			
Factor 1- Q20	0.348 (0.064)			
Factor 1- Q26	0.283 (0.052)			
Factor 1- Q29	0.405 (0.054)			
Factor 1- Q31	0.464 (0.050)			
Factor 1- Q32	0.595 (0.059)			
Factor 2- Q5		0.387 (0.066)		
Factor 2- Q6		0.221 (0.056)		
Factor 2- Q13		0.515 (0.078)		
Factor 2- Q16		0.359 (0.066)		
Factor 3- Q7			0.535 (0.069)	
Factor 3- Q8			0.386 (0.065)	
Factor 3- Q18			0.275 (0.048)	
Factor 4- Q12				0.576 (0.093)
Factor 4- Q24				0.353 (0.078)
Factor 4- Q30				0.366 (0.079)

Note. Source of scale items from Horwitz (1987, p. 187)

Stage 5. CFA using MPlus 6 program (Muthén & Muthén, 2006)
The goodness of fit of each and every factor was reexamined via the Mplus computation. Like LISREL, the Mplus program also employs an alglorithm of maximum likelihood estimation but features its simplicity of syntax and is particularly powerful with categorical variables (Albright & Park, 2009). It is also able to handle ordinal observed variables using weighted least squares (WLS) estimation methods (2009).

Table 4 displays the unstandardized and standardized estimates of factor loadings, all of which are statistically significant (2009). The standardized estimates of the variables, greater than 0.40, provide a structural pattern similar to that of SPSS EFA results. The RMSEA statistics suggest reasonal to good fit of the four hypothesized factors, while the CFI supplements with confirmatory information. For Factor 3 and 4, the small RMSEAs of 0.00 and large CFIs of 1.000 demonstrate saturation of the models to the data. In short, the results of these CFA analyses show that, each of the 4 factors has a unitary factor structure.

Table 4 *Factor Loading from Confirmatory Factor Analysis using Mplus 6*

Item	Unstandardized Estimate (SD)	Standard Estimate (SD)	Unstandardized Estimate (SD)	Standard Estimate (SD)	Unstandardized Estimate (SD)	Standard Estimate(SD)	Unstandardized Estimate (SD)	Standard Estimate (SD)
F1-Q20	1.000	0.433						
	(0.000)	(0.072)						
F1-Q26	1.156	0.500						
	(0.227)	(0.065)						
F1-Q29	1.553	0.672						
	(0.275)	(0.056)						
F1-Q31	1.783	0.772						
	(0.323)	(0.057)						
F1-Q32	1.859	0.805						
	(0.334)	(0.050)						
F2-Q5			1.000	0.607				
			(0.000)	(0.076)				
F2-Q6			0.793	0.482				
			(0.184)	(0.095)				
F2-Q13			0.880	0.534				
			(0.166)	(0.073)				
F2-Q16			0.885	0.537				
			(0.189)	(0.081)				
F3-Q7					1.000	0.823		
					(0.000)	(0.121)		
F3-Q17					0.763	0.628		
					(0.210)	(0.090)		
F3-Q18					0.617	0.508		
					(0.181)	(0.098)		
F4-Q12							1.000	0.535
							(0.000)	(0.132)
F4-Q24							0.849	0.454
							(0.329)	(0.118)
F4-Q30							0.914	0.489
							(0.384)	(0.119)
Chi-square	11.946		5.308		0.000		0.000	
RMSEA	0.085		0.093		0.000		0.000	
CFI	0.983		0.967		1.000		1.000	
WRMR	0.507		0.395		0.001		0.000	

Note. Source of scale items from Horwitz (1987, p. 187)

Discussion and implications

This report outlines the application of several statistically robust software programs, namely, SPSS19, LISREL 8.7 and Mplu 6, for the validation of Hortwitz's (1987) beliefs about language learning inventory administered to Chinese mainland college ESL students. The scale derivation and refinement rigorously complied with the principles of internal consistency and construct validity test. As a result, the study provided sufficient reliability and validity evidence for the BALLI inventory to be used for the larger-scale measurement of mainland Chinese college students' beliefs about learning English. The structure of beliefs resembles more of those of Wu (2008) and Yang's (1999) study than those conducted with some other Chinese cultural groups (Horwitz, 1999; Kuntz, 1996). One possible explanation is the similar cultural background in Greater China Area, where Chinese students share quite some in common when it comes to English learning. For example, most students may adopt similar learning strategies, including the old-fashioned root memorization and the emphasis on grammar. More importantly, Chinese students tend to have common beliefs in foreign language learning, esp., on the nature and value of language learning. For them, English is above all a key subject for public exams and a fundamental qualification for future careers. Empirical studies like this also shed light on Chinese college students' English learning experiences, their self-efficacy about language learning and beliefs about language learning aptitude.

The distinctive findings of the current study may be attributable to the characteristics of the sampled learners and the English learning environment they are in (Wu, 2008). Nevertheless, it's beyond the scope of the present study to look into the uniqueness of the set of beliefs the sample group holds, or similarities and differences between it and some other learner groups. It's also worth noting that the validation of the inventory was not performed for its own sake. What attempted is a large-scale investigation by using the reliable inventory to explore the belief patterns of Chinese mainland college students' about learning English as a second language**.** The findings may also provide additional information to language instruction, curriculum development, program planning, and so forth (Wu, 2008).

Constituting a large proportion of English learners in the global education market, Chinese learners make significant differences to international education and development. Among them college students are the would-be end users of English, which has consumed considerable time over their education years. As opposed to the other learner groups globally, the imbalance of pains and gains of the Chinese students is striking. Apart from the educational tradition and cultural contexts, their belief system on language learning deserves more attention. By relating the belief system to affective, cognitive, and social strategies of language learning, the exploration will be of practical significance for international education development.

Methodologically, in addition to the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis under the CTT conception, the Rasch modeling method that differ conceptually can also be taken for reference in the validation exercise. In the classical testing theory (CTT) factor analysis that the current study employs, ordinal raw scores obtained from rating scales are treated as interval data; as such the relationships between them and factor scores are mistakenly regarded as linear (Bond & Fox, 2001). In contrast, the Rasch measurement model (Rasch, 1960) starts from interval measures that have been converted from raw ordinal data, and has the desirable scaling properties of linear and interval measurement (Bond, 2003; Embretson & Reise, 2000; Wang 2010). Additionally, in Rasch scaling method item difficulties and person ability or trait measures are estimated on the same linear scaling continuum, thus having the same unit of measurement (Bond, 2003; Embretson & Reise, 2000). In the Rasch framework, psychometrical properties, as indicators of construct validity, provide less ambiguous statistical information. Moreover, the Rasch analysis, unlike CTT-based factor analysis, produces sample-free item locations and scale-free person measures (Wang, 2010; Wright & Master, 2002). Above all, Rasch modeling is "less sensitive to markedly-skewed distributions of the item ratings", which in CTT is considered as "serious violation of the normality assumption with factor analytic procedures, and, thus, to inaccurate factor solutions" (Welch, Hall, & Walkey, 1990, as cited in Wu & Chang, 2009, p. 14). In brief, Rasch modeling is superior to the CTT approach on account of validation of latent trait measures. Considering the empirical investigations on the BALLI by using the Rasch modeling method, it is still a virgin land to explore. It might also point a way out considering the controversies over the BALLY belief structures across the English learners worldwide.

Conclusion

Through multiple validation exercises this study established and reviewed the validity of the adapted BALLI inventory for the purpose of surveying mainland Chinese students' beliefs about learning English as a second language. It's concluded that the four-factor structure has valid constructs and reasonable internal consistency, thereby meeting the strong demand for using a reliable instrument to collect data for the investigations to come. It should be noted that, the small convenience sample at the preliminary stage is "limited in nature to allow generalizations" (Littlewood, 2001, p. 9). The suggestion is that, a large and heterogeneous sample be collected in future study in terms of student gender, year level, etc. Further the Rasch modeling method is recommended to be taken for comparison with the CTT validation exercise. Although CTT and the Rasch modeling differ conceptually they do not contradict. It's only based on a valid and psychometrically rigorous inventory, a large-scale investigation to explore Chinese mainland college students' belief patterns about learning English as a second language will make sense**.**

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Appendix 1

Below are beliefs that some people have about learning foreign language.

Read each statement and decide if you: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) neither agree or disagree, (4) disagree, (5) strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers. We are simply interested in your opinions. Mark each answer on the special sheet. Questions 4 and 15 are slight different and you should mark them as indicated.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	□	□	□	□	□
2. Some people have a special ability for leaning foreign languages	□	□	□	□	□
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.	□	□	□	□	□
4. English is					□
(a) a very difficult language					
(b) a difficult language					
(c) a language of medium difficulty					
(d) an easy language					
(e) a very easy language					
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.	□	□	□	□	□
6. People from my country are good at learning foreign languages.	□	□	□	□	□
7. It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.	□	□	□	□	□
8. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.	□	□	□	□	□
9. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	□	□	□	□	□
10. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.	□	□	□	□	□
11. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning a foreign language.	□	□	□	□	□
12. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.	□	□	□	□	□
13. I enjoy practicing English with the Americans I meet.	□	□	□	□	□

14. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in English.	□	□	□	□	□
15. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take them to speak the language every well:					□
(a) Less than a year					
(b) 1-2 years					
(c) 3-5 years					
(d) 5-10 years					
(e) You cannot learn a language in 1 hour a day.					
16. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	□	□	□	□	□
17. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.	□	□	□	□	□
18. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	□	□	□	□	□
19. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	□	□	□	□	□
20. People in my country feel that it is important to speak English.	□	□	□	□	□
21. I feel timid speaking English with other people.	□	□	□	□	□
22. If permitted to make errors, it will be difficult to speak correctly later on.	□	□	□	□	□
23. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar.	□	□	□	□	□
24. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know American better.	□	□	□	□	□
25. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.	□	□	□	□	□
26. It is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.	□	□	□	□	□
27. Learning a foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects.	□	□	□	□	□
28. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language.	□	□	□	□	□
29. If I learn English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.	□	□	□	□	□
30. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.	□	□	□	□	□
31. I want to learn to speak English well.	□	□	□	□	□
32. I would like to have American friends.	□	□	□	□	□
33. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	□	□	□	□	□
34. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.	□	□	□	□	□

Appendix 2

下面是人們對外語學習的一些觀點。請仔細閱讀然後決定你的看法，是(1)完全同意、(2)同意、(3)既不同意也不反對、(4)反對、(5)強烈反對。請注意本次調查旨在收集你的個人看法，答案無對錯之分。另第四、十五題略有不同，請依照題意作答。多謝合作。

		完全同意	同意	既不同意也不反對	反對	強烈反對
1.	兒童學習外語比成人更加容易。	□	□	□	□	□
2.	在外語學習方面，有些人具有特殊的天分。	□	□	□	□	□
3.	有些外語較之其他外語更容易學習。	□	□	□	□	□
4.	英語是					□
	(a) 一種非常難學的語言。					
	(b) 一種難學的語言。					
	(c) 一種中等難度的語言。					
	(d) 一種容易學習的語言。					
	(e) 一種非常容易的語言。					
5.	我相信我能說好英語口語。	□	□	□	□	□
6.	我國的人擅長學習外語。	□	□	□	□	□
7.	講英語時，極好的發音是非常重要的。	□	□	□	□	□
8.	瞭解英語語言文化對於學好英語是非常必要的。	□	□	□	□	□
9.	只有能用英語正確表達時，你才應該說英語。	□	□	□	□	□
10.	對於已經能夠說一種外語的人來說，學習另一種外語是非常容易的。	□	□	□	□	□
11.	擅長數學或科學的人是不擅長學習外語的。	□	□	□	□	□
12.	在以英語為母語的國家學習英語是最好的。	□	□	□	□	□
13.	我喜歡和遇到的外國人練習口語。	□	□	□	□	□
14.	如果你不知道某個英語單詞，可以猜測其意。	□	□	□	□	□
15.	如果某人在語言學習上每天花費一小時，多久之後他/她能夠擁有良好的口語表達能力？					□

(a) 至少一年

(b) 1-2 年

(c) 3-5 年

(d) 5-10 年

(e) 你無法保證每天有一小時的時間學習一門語言。

16. 我有學習外語的特殊才能。	□	□	□	□	□
17. 掌握詞彙是學習一門外語最主要的部分。	□	□	□	□	□
18. 反復練習對於語言學習至關重要。	□	□	□	□	□
19. 在語言學習方面，女性優於男性。	□	□	□	□	□
20. 在我的國家，人們認為說英語是非常重要的。	□	□	□	□	□
21. 與別人用英語交流時我覺得有些膽怯。	□	□	□	□	□
22. 如果允許初學者在說英語時犯錯，那他們以後將很難正確表達。	□	□	□	□	□
23. 學習語法是外語學習的最重要部分。	□	□	□	□	□
24. 我想學習英語，這樣就能夠更充分瞭解外國人。	□	□	□	□	□
25. 學說一門外語比理解一門外語容易。	□	□	□	□	□
26. 運用錄音帶或錄影帶進行語言練習是很重要的。	□	□	□	□	□
27. 外語學習有別於其他學術科目的學習。	□	□	□	□	□
28. 英語學習最重要的部分是學習如何將英語翻譯成自己的母語。	□	□	□	□	□
29. 如果英語學得好，那麼在求職中我會有更好的機會。	□	□	□	□	□
30. 會說多種語言的人是非常聰明的。	□	□	□	□	□
31. 我想學好英語口語。	□	□	□	□	□
32. 我想交幾個外國朋友。	□	□	□	□	□
33. 每個人都能學說一門外語。	□	□	□	□	□
34. 相比較口語表達和聽懂對方，英語閱讀和寫作更容易。	□	□	□	□	□